AMERICAN BEGINNINGS IN EUROPE

GORDY

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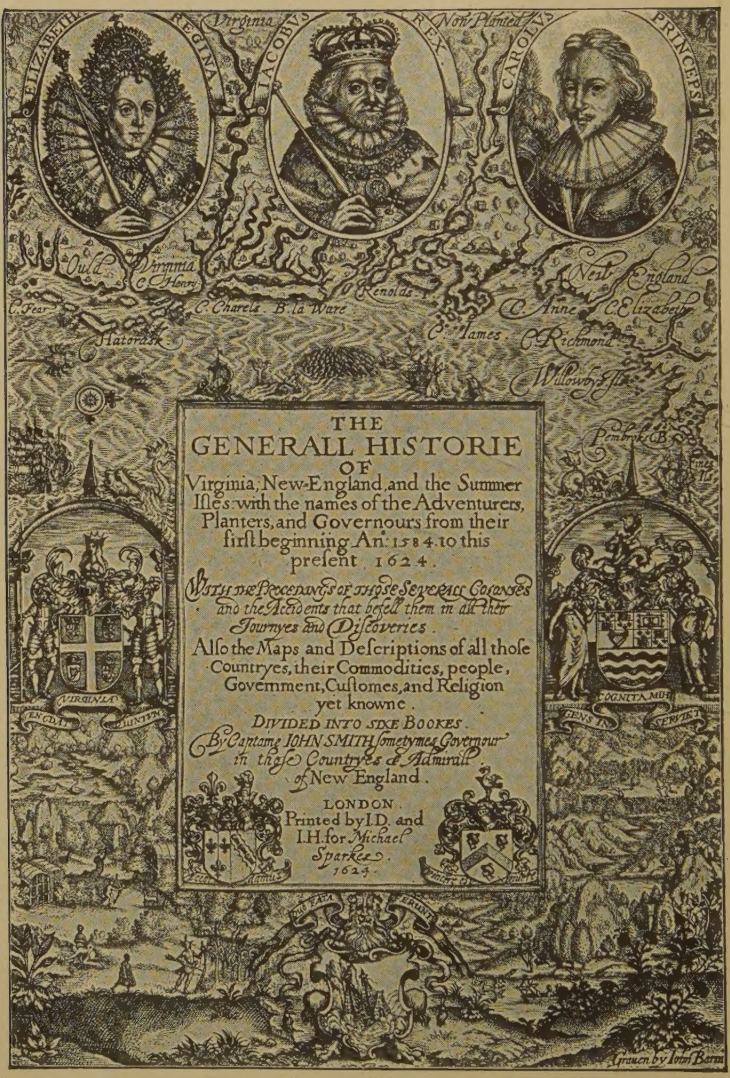
Miss Mary Hirsch



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AMERICAN BEGINNINGS IN EUROPE

BY

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WITH MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

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PREFACE

History, it has been wisely said, finds its greatest practical value in bringing about the moral revelation of the world in the mind of the child. In organizing the facts of history with the achievement of this moral revelation in view, that material should be selected which the pupil can appreciate and understand, which will be most conducive to his moral and intellectual growth, and which will be most helpful in explaining his life in its relation to the lives of his fellows. With the purpose of thus making history an applied study this book has been written.

The plan is based upon the outline prepared by the Committee of Eight for Grade VI, and in the main it follows this outline somewhat closely. As the author was a member of that committee, he has had the best possible opportunity to know just what is the scope of the work which the outline was intended to cover. Moreover, after this report was issued he made out for the schools of Springfield, Mass., of which he was superintendent, a course of study in history for Grade VI which was much like that made out for the same grade by the committee. For three years he saw this outline thoroughly tested, in

the every-day work of the schools. He naturally feels, therefore, that his experience has been very useful to him as a preparation for writing "American Beginnings in Europe."

In explaining his purpose he cannot do better than quote the language of the Committee in its report to the American Historical Association. "It is by no means intended," says the report, "that the groups of topics outlined in Grade VI should be taught as organized history. Such a use of the material suggested would utterly defeat the purpose in view. Pupils in this grade are not prepared to study scientific history in its logical and orderly development. But they are prepared to receive more or less definite impressions that may be conveyed to them by means of pictures, descriptions, and illustrative stories arranged in chronological sequence. In receiving such impressions they will not understand the full meaning of the great events touched upon, but they will catch something of the spirit and purpose of the Greeks, the Romans, and other types of racial life."

It is the hope of the author that through such impressions the pupil will clearly understand that our national history is a part of the history of the world, and that it had its beginnings many centuries before Columbus started out on his famous voyage of discovery. For some of our American beginnings we are indebted to the Greeks, for some to the Romans, for others to the men of the Middle Ages, and for others still to the peoples of more recent

eras. To make this clear the pupil is taken back in imagination to the time of the Greeks, the Romans, and the men of the Middle Ages. Simple material of great racial types like the Greeks and Romans is used to illustrate the traits of character of these peoples, to interest the pupil in some of their most precious memories, and to give him some hints as to the contributions they have made to our civilization. In other words, the pupil will learn in a very simple way when and where some of the valuable elements of our civilization had their beginnings, what ways of living our forefathers brought with them when they came to America, and something of the spirit which prompted the discovery, the exploration, and the settlement of the New World.

By means of such impressions, gained through pictures, descriptions, and illustrative stories, it is believed that the learner will receive influences which will enrich his intellectual and moral life and prepare him for an intelligent appreciation of the history of his own country. In "American Beginnings," it is hoped, he will get a glimpse of the meaning of American life which will be of untold value to him in his studies at school, but especially in his later adult life as a citizen and as a man.

Wherever it could be done, there has been a persistent effort to make representative men the centre of great movements and important situations. By getting a glimpse of such men as they appeared to those who knew them, and also some notion, even though slight, of their personal qualities, the pupil through his sympathetic imagination

comes into vital touch with the past and gets deep and lasting impressions.

For the purpose of emphasizing these impressions, "Things to Remember" may be used to great advantage after the reading and study of any chapter. They give in a nutshell some of the more important facts mentioned in the text. A few significant "things" learned in this way will serve to give a definite and useful quality to the pupil's knowledge.

The notes "To the Pupil" will be found very useful not only in testing the child's knowledge of the text, but also in stimulating his interest in men and events. The questions are not intended to cover all the facts in the text. They rather call attention to the more important ones and suggest additional questions. They may be used in connection with the side topics to give variety to the recitation.

Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon forming the important habit of locating every event on the map. Not only in preparing the lesson, but also in reciting it, maps should be brought constantly into use. Believing this, the author has taken special pains to see that the maps in this book contain no useless matter. The aim has been to put into them only what will help the pupil to understand the meaning of the text.

In conclusion, I wish to acknowledge my deep obligation to Professor Bernadotte Perrin and Professor George Burton Adams, of Yale University, for many valuable suggestions; also to Mr. Forrest Morgan, of the Watkin-

son Library, Hartford, and to Mr. Alfred M. Hitchcock, of the Hartford Public High School, both of whom have read the proof and offered most helpful criticisms; and especially to my wife, without whose sympathetic encouragement and assistance this book would not have been written.

WILBUR F. GORDY

HARTFORD, CONN.,
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AMERICAN BEGINNINGS IN EUROPE

CHAPTER I

THE PRESENT AND THE PAST

1. The Strong Men of the Past Our Teachers.—We all listen with eager interest to stories of heroic men and their brave deeds. Such stories appeal to us because they point to the noble things we too may do if we learn to hold noble ideals and aims and to take up hard tasks. They somehow make us feel grateful to the strong men whose deeds they tell of; for as we read we easily believe these men were in many ways much like ourselves, even though they lived in different times and countries and worked in ways quite unlike our own. While in imagination we join with them in meeting their dangers and in solving their problems, we learn how to live more wisely and how to be of greater service to others. We know that many of the things these heroes of long ago had to learn before they succeeded in doing their work are the very things we too must learn if we are to be successful.

Stories of heroic men help us to live more wisely

These men of the past, to whom we owe so much, do not belong to any one time or country. Some of them lived thousands of years ago, some but hundreds of years ago, and still others in more recent times. Many had their homes in ancient Greece and Rome, many in the European countries of the Middle Ages, and even more

These men of the past belong to various times and countries

belonged to more modern times and countries. But in whatever age or country they lived, many of the things they did are still helping us to-day. For what we are as a people is largely the outcome of the struggles of many men, of many ages, and of many lands.

The purpose of this book

Of course it is not always easy to trace the relation between the lives of men in far-away days and our own. Nor is it possible in this little book, even though it were desirable, to give the history of such men or of the periods or countries in which they lived. The pages which follow do not contain what we call organized history. But it is hoped that in them you may get a few impressions which will help you to understand the spirit and purpose of the Greeks, the Romans, and other peoples who have done something to make our civilization what it is. If you get such impressions you will understand better the meaning of your own history when you come to study it, and will see more clearly the bearing of all history upon your own life.

THE "MAYFLOWER," ONE HUNDRED FEET LONG OVER ALL, WHICH CARRIED ONE HUNDRED AND TWO PEOPLE

New-comers in our own land

2. Where Americans Came From.—Not only do our ways of living come from many lands, but our people do as well. Our forefathers were emigrants from several countries, and millions of people living in the United States to-day were born across the sea. These millions of foreign-born men and women represent every civilized country of the world. Even in our own community it is probable there are people from many lands.

How immigrants come

Most, if not all, have come to the United States on ocean steamships, some of which now travel with great

speed and carry people enough to fill a whole town. The fastest and best make the voyage from England or France to New York or Boston in five or six days, and carry from 2,000 to 3,000 passengers. Some of these steamers have four or five decks, with passenger elevators, telephones, and other conveniences, making them like large floating hotels.

THE "OLYMPIC," EIGHT HUNDRED AND EIGHTY-TWO FEET LONG, WHICH CARRIES THREE THOUSAND THREE HUNDRED AND SIXTY PEOPLE

Of course you know that most of the immigrants of to-day come over as third-class, or steerage, passengers. Before they are admitted to any of our ports—New York City, for example—they are examined by the proper officials to see if they meet the requirements of our laws for admission into this country. These laws require that immigrants shall be free from serious disease, shall not be convicts, and shall be self-supporting. If they pass the examination the new-comers are free to go wherever they like, and, unless they decide to remain in New York, they travel by railroad to the places which they wish to make their new homes.

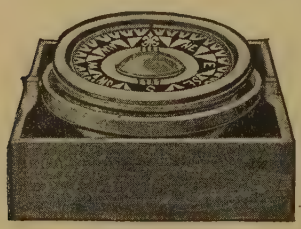
The admission of immigrants to this country

Earlier Americans as emigrants

Far different was it with those who in earlier days found their way to the western world. As you may already know, among the first emigrants to settle in our country were the Pilgrims, who landed at Plymouth in 1620. They knew nothing of the luxuries of the great modern steamship. They set sail in the *Mayflower*, a boat which carried only 102 passengers, of whom 20 were boys and 8 were girls. Long weeks and months they were at sea. They suffered many trying experiences, and at times must have longed for the simple home comforts they had left behind. At last the tempest-driven *Mayflower*, with sails rent and timbers strained, dropped anchor safely after she had been sailing sixty-four days. The difference between the voyage of 1620 and that of to-day marks the progress of nearly three centuries in the speed and comfort of ocean travel.

Some modern inventions

3. **What Americans Started With.**—When the emigrants from Europe came to America in the seventeenth century they brought with them much that the people of Europe had learned up to that time. But they knew nothing about many ways of doing things that we know to-day. The steamship, the railroad, the trolley-car, the spinning-machine, the power loom, the sewing-machine, the telegraph, and the telephone had not been invented. These and other inventions have come into use since the Pilgrims first landed on the "bleak New England shore."

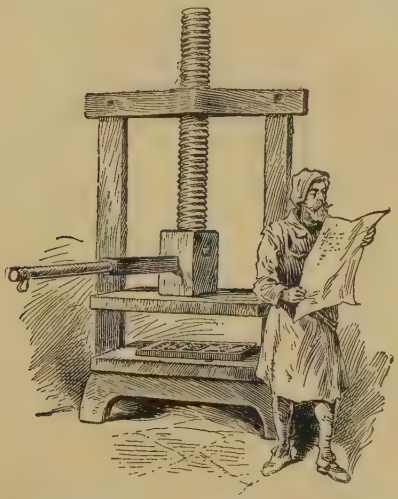


A MARINER'S COMPASS

But fortunately for the Pilgrims and others who set-

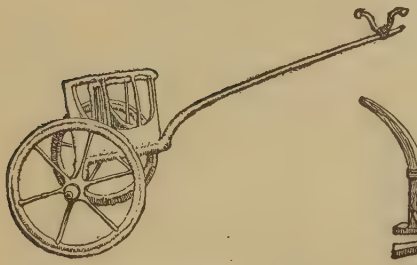
tled in America in the seventeenth century, many things had been invented before their day. Among the most useful of these were the mariner's compass, gunpowder,

Inventio made be the comi of the Pilgrims



A PRINTING-PRESS OF THE TIME OF GUTENBERG

and the printing-press. With the compass as a guide, sailors were ready as they had never been before to venture far out into the sea in search of undiscovered shores; gunpowder made it easier to overcome wild and savage peoples; and the printing-press spread abroad the knowledge of new-found lands and of what men were doing everywhere. By the use of such inventions men could wield more power over the forces of nature and, what was of still greater advantage, could accomplish far more in their work together. The printing-press has been of especial value in cheapening the cost of books and thus enabling a much greater number of people to profit by the wisdom of the ages.

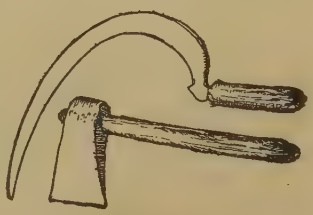


WHEELS OF THE EGYPTIANS, A CHARIOT

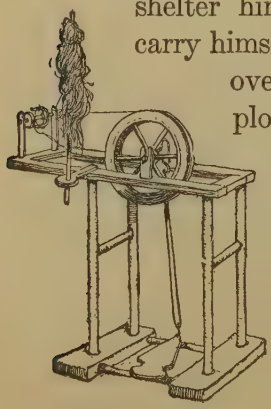
A ROMAN PLOUGH

Still older inventions

These inventions had been made many years before Columbus crossed the Atlantic; and very much earlier were many others which to-day seem so commonplace that we do not think of them as inventions at all. Some of them are the house, the boat, the bow, the hatchet, the plough, and the spinning-wheel. It was many years before the rude man of primitive days learned to build a house to shelter himself, a boat to carry himself and his goods over the water, a plough to break up the soil, and a way to express his thoughts and feelings in written words and sentences so as to make a permanent record.



PRIMITIVE TOOLS



AN EARLY SPINNING-WHEEL

AN ARCHER USING THE LONG BOW

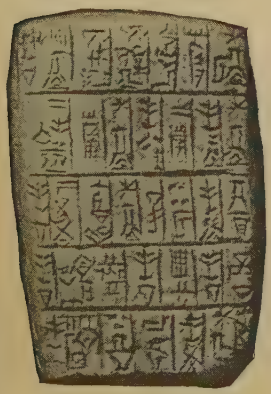
4. The Invention of the Alphabet.—This last is one of the most remarkable inventions ever made in the history of the world. But like most others it came about slowly, by various steps in a long process. Writing was used long before printing or even the letters of the alphabet. Instead of words the Egyptians in the earlier days used pictures. But as they had neither paper nor ink, they employed tools of hardened bronze and made the pictures on stone.

The Egyptian used pict instead words

EARLY EGYPTIAN PICTURES. PLOUGHING, BREAKING CLODS, AND SOWING

For instance, if they wished to write the word for *man*, they cut on the stone a picture of a man, or if they wished to write the word for *cat*, they cut a picture of a cat. The first step, then, was to use a picture for every word. The second step was to use a picture for a syllable. In this case the picture was followed closely by other pictures. The third and final step was the use of a picture for a single letter. In this way the alphabet as we know it to-day grew out of pictures.

The first second, third ste in the us of pictur



CUNEIFORM WRITING

The Babylonians as far back as we know them had already gone beyond picture writing, and wrote in an alphabet of their own. They used tablets of clay and wrote with a bronze tool called the stylus.

The wed shaped letters of the Baby lonians

As this was square at the end and they used only a corner of it in writing, the mark left on the clay had the shape of a wedge. Hence arose the name "cuneiform," which means wedge-shaped.

The alphabet as we know it to-day

The use of the alphabet as we know it to-day came later. Just when and by whom it was invented is uncertain. It is believed by some that the Cretans were the inventors of the alphabet and that the Phœnicians carried it to Greece.

5. **How People of Any Age Learn from the Past.**—It appears, therefore, from this brief glance backward, that we Americans about three hundred years ago, when John Smith and other Englishmen reached Jamestown and the Pilgrims reached Plymouth, started with many things which had been invented or discovered in the ages long before our ancestors ever dreamed of coming to America. Such has ever been the way, for it has always been true that when the men of any time found out a way of doing things which helped them to live with greater ease and comfort, those who came after them continued to use these ways of working, unless they found better ones. In this manner the people of each age profit by the experience of those who have lived before them, and at the same time they themselves invent new ways of doing things. Thus the old stock of ideas is ever being added to, each period in the world's history improving a little on what has gone before.

Men's knowledge of geography in different ages

6. **The World as Known When the Christian Era Began.**—The world in 1620, for instance, when the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, was quite different from what it was in 1492, when Columbus discovered America. Nor

was the difference wholly in ways of living brought about by useful inventions It was also in men's greater knowledge of geography. By consulting the map you will see how different was the earth's surface in 1620 from what it was as known in the time of Columbus, and, again, how different still it was at the beginning of the Christian era, that is, nearly fifteen hundred years before Columbus found his way to the New World.

What some of the peoples of ancient times were called

The names by which some of the ancient peoples are known are not the same as the names by which the people now living in these countries are known. For example, those living in what is now England were called Britons; those in France were called Gauls; those in Spain were called Iberians; and the chief part of those in Italy were called Romans. But even in those far-away times the men of Greece were called Greeks, though, to be sure, they called themselves Hellenes.

The Greeks knew little of geograp

The most intelligent of these peoples were the Greeks, yet in the early day of their history they knew little of what lay beyond their own boundaries. Their ideas of geography were hazy and fanciful. They believed the earth to be a plane stretching from the Ægean Sea in all directions far away into unknown regions. They thought that at the extreme north was an island, which had been discovered by Pytheas, a sailor from Marseilles. They called it Ultima Thule, which means most distant goal. The best authority now holds that this was not a real island, but the coast of Norway.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Our ways of living have come from many lands, and therefore we owe much to the past, which we learn through the study

of history. 2. Many of the people living in our country to-day came from other countries, just as our forefathers did. 3. When the emigrants from Europe came to America in the seventeenth century they brought with them many ways of doing things that the people of Europe had learned up to that time.

TO THE PUPIL

1. In what ways do the stories of heroic men help us to live more wisely?

2. From what countries do most of the immigrants to our land come now? Which of these countries are represented by immigrants in your own community?

3. From what countries did our forefathers come?

4. How do immigrants come to-day, and how did our forefathers come?

5. Name some modern inventions which the Pilgrims knew nothing about. Name three important ones made before the Pilgrims came; and also some older inventions.

6. How do people of any age learn from the past?

21°
22°
23°
24°
41°
40°
39°
Eordaicus R.
Aegae
Pella
Thessalonica
Philippi
Amphipolis
Thasos
Strymon R.
Gulf of Xeraxa
Acanthus
CHALCIDICE
Olynthus
THERMAIC GULF
Potidaea
MT. ATHOS
Mende
Torone
Haliacmon R.
OLYMPUS M.
Peneius R.
OSSA M.
Larissa
Dodona
Lous
THESSALY
Sperchius R.
Phthiotic Thebes
PELION M.
Pharsalus
Pagasaean Gulf
Ambracia
Ambracian Gulf
Actium
Olpae
Leucas
Artemisium
Scyros
Malian Gulf
Euboean
Leucas
ACARNANIA

ANCIENT GREECE.
0 10 20 30 40
Scale of Miles.
Reference to Colors.
Over 6,000 feet
3,000 to 6,000 feet
500 to 3,000 feet
Sea Level to 500 feet
Cephalenia
Zacynthos
Ithaca
CORINTHIAN GULF
Aegium
Patrae
Cyllene
Corinth
Cenchreae
Elis
PELOPONNESUS
ACHAIA
ELEIA
ARCADIA
ARGOLIS
Olympia
Martinea
Argos
Tiryns
Mycenae
Tegea
Megalopolis
CYNURIA
Messene
MESSENIA
Thuria
Sparta
LACONIA
Pylos
Sphacteria
MESSENIAN GULF
LACONIAN GULF
Taenarum Pr.
Malea Pr.
Cythera
BOEOTIA
Chaeronea
Coronea
Lebadea
Thebes
Thespiae
Leuctra
Plataea
Tanagra
Oropus
Eretria
Chalcis
PARNES M.
Marathon
MEGARIS
Megara
Eleusis
Athens
Nisaea
Piraeus
Salamis
SARONIC GULF
Aegina
Epidaurus
Troezen
Hermione
ARGOLIC GULF
Hydrea
Sunium Pr.
Ceos
Cythnos
Seriphos
Cimolos
Melos
THE M. & H. WORKS
21°
22°
Longitude East from Greenwich
23°
24°
38°
37°

CHAPTER II

THE GREEKS AND WHY WE REMEMBER THEM

7. What We Owe to the Greeks and the Romans.—There is little doubt but that we owe more to the Greeks and the Romans than to any other people of ancient times. Although they lived over two thousand years ago and far away on the shores of the Mediterranean, yet from them we have learned many things. Our ways of living would be very different had not our ancestors brought with them to America Greek and Roman ideas; for many of our ways are but Greek and Roman ways slightly changed.

8. Geographical Conditions in Greece.—The mainland of Greece was but a small country, about the size of Maine or South Carolina, and six times the size of Connecticut. But it was quite unlike any of these States in outline or surface. It was a roughly triangular peninsula. Its most striking feature was its rugged mountains, Mount Olympus being the highest peak.

The size and shape of Greece

Its rugged mountains

The high ridges and peaks cut the land into hundreds of upland plains and valleys, some of which were only tiny basins of a few acres or even less lying among the hills. Everywhere the mountains were so steep and unbroken that but few roads or even paths connected one valley with another.

The land cut into upland plains and valleys

In these upland plains and valleys, shut in by towering

The people lived in small groups

mountains, lived small groups of people, most of them farmers and shepherds. Since in most parts of Greece the soil was thin and bare, the men dwelling in these mountain towns had to work hard to make a living from their barley, wheat, and flax, and their herds and flocks on the hills.

Two effects of the conditions under which the people lived

In one way these conditions worked for good, by making the men strong, sturdy, and self-reliant. But in another way their effect was bad, since the people saw little of others living outside their own small community, and thus became narrow in their ideas and petty in their interests.

Mountain passes

But the mountains, which shut them off from other communities also defended them from the ravages of war. Even the mountain passes were so few and narrow that a small number of brave men could hold back an advancing enemy.

The rivers short

Another feature in the geography of Greece which kept the towns—or city-states, as they later came to be called—apart from each other was the smallness of its rivers. If there had been a great river running through the country it would have helped to bring about trade between the various groups living near its banks. But the rivers were all short, because the mountains were at no point far from the sea. At the end of winter they were full and strong, while at the end of summer they became either mere threads of water or dry beds. But when they were full of water the current rushed with such force that no boat could sail upon a single river of Greece.

The Greeks and the sea

Although the Greek communities of the mainland were separated from each other, few of them were cut off from the sea. The eastern and north-western coasts of Greece were full of bays and inlets reaching up into the land,

COLONIES OF
PHOENICIA AND GREECE.
Greece (mother country).
Greek Colonies.
THE N.-N. WORKS
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
ASIA MINOR
EGYPT
RED SEA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
CRETE
Rhodes
Massilia
Antipolis
Olbia
Tragurium
Alalia
Saguntum
Cumæ
Issus
Epidamnus
Oiynthus
Apollonia
Croton
Corcyra
Syracuse
Catana
Rhegium
Locri
Thurii
Amphipolis
Neapolis
Byzantium
Cyzicus
Lampsacus
Sinope
Odessus
MESAMBRIA
Heraclea
Tetrus
Tomi
Callatis
Ilium
Elaea
Smyrna
Ephesus
Miletus
Athens
Sparta
Soli
Salamis
Cyrene
Barca
Naucratis

and these had good harbors. Moreover, the sea was safe, having as a rule regular winds and clear skies, except in the short winter. In case of a storm the sailors were never far from a good harbor, for the islands in the Ægean Sea lay close together and provided safe anchorage.

Greek sailors and traders

These islands stretched in long lines from the shores of Greece to the coast of Asia Minor, which made it easy to make quite long trips without going far from land. This encouraged trade, and many of the Greeks became sailors and traded extensively. It was their life on the sea that more than all else brought the Greeks into touch with other lands and peoples and developed so strongly their power of imagination. No other country in ancient days was so open to the commerce of the world.

Early colonies

9. The Expansion of Greece.—But these mountain people, whom we have just described, were only a small part of the Greeks. At an early day the mother country on the continent began to send out colonies to other lands and continued to do so until the Greeks had spread over much of the ancient world as it was known at that time. By the beginning of the fifth century there were not only Greeks on their mainland of the Balkan peninsula, but also Greeks in Sicily and the south part of the Italian peninsula, Greeks on the islands and shores of the Ægean basin, and Greeks elsewhere on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea and its tributaries. In fact, Greece, or Hellas, included not only all of the home country, but also the larger Greek world outside of the home country. It should be noted also that the culture of the maritime Greeks was in early days far in advance of that of the Greeks of Greece proper and

What Greece or Hellas included

culminated in the splendor of such cities as Ephesus and Miletus on the coast of Asia Minor.

10. **Jason and the Golden Fleece.**—Although the ancient Greeks long since passed away they left behind great memories for all who came after them to cherish. Among these are the wonderful stories they told, the famous cities they built, and the heroic deeds of their great men.

Greek heroes and their deeds

The stories which they delighted to tell and which they wished their children to learn are not in most of their details what we should call true stories. But they merit mention here because they point to the kind of heroes the Greeks honored and to the kind of deeds they admired; and still more because it was these heroes that they tried to imitate, and in so trying they did become more like them.

Jason and the Golden Fleece

One of the most interesting is the story of Jason and the Golden Fleece. Jason, heir to the kingdom of Iolchis, was kept from his throne by Pelias, an uncle, who was holding it for him until he should become old enough to reign. One day young Jason came into the presence of his uncle and declared he now wished the throne for himself. Pelias promised to yield it to him, but at the same time advised that before he became king he should win glory for himself by going in search of the Golden Fleece. This fleece hung in a grove in Colchis, far from Greece, and was guarded day and night by a fire-breathing dragon which never slept. Pelias, of course, expected that Jason would never come back.

Jason and the Argonauts

Pleased with the idea, Jason at once began to build a fifty-oared ship. When it was ready, with fifty brave

young men he started out on his bold adventure. The ship was called the *Argo*, and the young men the Argonauts, or Argo-sailors. Having reached Colchis after many dangers, Jason made known his errand to the King. That ruler had no notion of parting with the Golden Fleece, but thought he would soon rid himself of this bold adventurer.

Jason tames the fire-breathing bulls

He therefore set Jason two impossible tasks, and told him that when he had performed them the Golden Fleece should be his. One of the tasks was to plough a field with two fire-breathing bulls; the other was to plant the teeth of a dragon which had long before been slain by a foreign adventurer named Cadmus. By the aid of the King's daughter Medea, who had fallen in love with Jason and who was skilled in magic, Jason tamed the bulls so that they were easy to manage.

Jason plants the dragon's teeth and slays the dragon

Then, after ploughing the field, he planted the dragon's teeth, from every one of which sprang forth an armed soldier eager for battle. Rushing at Jason to cut him down, the warriors were suddenly surprised by a stone which Jason threw among them. Each believing that he had been struck by his neighbor, they all at once began to fight each other and continued the fierce struggle until all were dead. Jason next turned to the dragon. By the use of Medea's magic he put him to sleep and slew him. Then securing the Golden Fleece he carried it back to his own kingdom.

The twelve labors

11. **Hercules a Famous Greek Hero.**—Another of the heroes of whom the Greeks were proud was Hercules. It was said that when only a few months old he strangled two serpents that made an attack on him. But what made

him famous was the twelve labors he performed by order of the king he served. These labors required great strength and skill. Four of them were single combats with strange wild animals—the first with a huge lion, the second with a hydra having nine heads, the third with a stag having golden antlers and brazen feet, and the fourth with a wild boar. Another remarkable feat was the bringing from the lower world of the three-headed dog Cerberus, which guarded the gates of Hades.

Helen carried off by Paris

12. **The Trojan War.**—But the most famous of all the Greek tales were those centred about the Trojan War, many episodes of which are told in Homer's poems called "The Iliad" and "The Odyssey." According to the story as told in "The Iliad," Agamemnon was King of Greece, and his brother Menelaus was King of Sparta under him. In Asia Minor, just across the Ægean Sea, was a city called Troy, whose king was named Priam. Menelaus's wife Helen was the most beautiful woman in Greece. Once when Priam's son Paris was visiting Menelaus he won the love of Helen, and carried her back to Troy with him. He refused to give her up. To force him to do so, Agamemnon gathered an army from all Greece and made war against Troy, which after ten years was captured and burned. The story of the wooden horse tells how they entered and captured the city.

GODS DESCENDING TO AID THE TROJANS

The most noted Greek hero of this war was Achilles, and the bravest of the Trojans was Priam's son Hector, who was slain by Achilles in a famous combat. **Achilles and Hector**

13. **The Story of Odysseus.**—Another favorite hero of this war was Odysseus (Ulysses), King of Ithaca, a little island on the west coast of Greece. In order to save him- **Odysseus wanders ten years**

A READING FROM HOMER

self and his companions on his way homeward, he blinded one of the Cyclops, one-eyed sons of Poseidon, god of the sea. In punishment for this act, Poseidon kept Odysseus wandering for ten years before permitting him to make safe return to Ithaca. During that time, in which he lost all his men, he had many thrilling adventures, which are recounted in Homer's "Odyssey" (the story of Odysseus).

14. **Famous Greek Cities.**—Fascinating as are these stories of adventure—full of pictures of Greek thought and character—the life of their cities is not less interesting. Some of the more important ones which played a large part in the life of ancient Greece still keep their names to-day

Among them are Athens, Corinth, Thebes, and Sparta. Every one of these can trace its history back to the time when Greece was in her glory, and even now they are worth seeing and knowing. But they have a far deeper interest to those of us who know something of their ancient life and growth and what their people did many hundred years ago. Athens and Sparta will claim our attention when we speak a little later of the Athenians and of the Spartans.

15. **Undying Memories of Greek Courage.**—The famous Greek stories and cities which we have mentioned constantly remind us of what the Greek people were and what they achieved. But stronger reminders still are the undying memories of Greek courage; for, after all, among the most precious things we possess is the knowledge of the deeds of brave men. Among the many instances of Greek courage we will recount only a few, which will help us to see how resolute and freedom-loving these people were.

Greek colonies

16. **The First Persian Invasion.**—As we have already seen, much of the soil of Greece was thin and bare. For that reason the country could not support a large population, and the Greeks were driven to planting colonies on neighboring shores, as, for example, on the islands of the Ægean Sea and in Asia Minor, in southern Italy and Sicily, and on what is now the French and Spanish coast. Of these we have already spoken.

The revolt of the Greek cities in Asia Minor

After a time the Greek cities in Asia Minor became so numerous and so strong that they rose in revolt against the Persian King, Darius, who held them under his rule. To this revolt Athens and its neighbor city Eretria lent

their aid, Athens sending twenty ships and Eretria five. This made King Darius so angry that as soon as he had put down the revolt in Asia Minor he fixed his mind upon a plan to punish these two insolent cities. Lest in the rush of other occupations he should forget his purpose, he ordered his cup-bearer, according to Herodotus, a Greek historian, to remind him at every banquet of the insult he had received by saying, "Master, remember the Athenians."

Darius angry

A PERSIAN SOLDIER

How much truth there may be in this story we do not know, but in the year following the end of the revolt Darius began to make preparations to invade Greece. First he sent heralds to all the principal Greek cities to demand earth and water as a sign of submission. This was according to the customs of those days. Some of the cities obeyed the King's order, but the Athenians and the Spartans dared to defy the Persian monarch. According to Herodotus, the Athenians threw the herald that came to them into a pit where he could get earth, and the Spartans threw theirs into a well where he could get water. Of course these defiant insults made Darius more angry than ever.

He demands earth and water

In 490 B. C. Darius sent his army against Greece. It soon captured and burned Eretria. Then the Persians made a landing at Marathon, a plain about twenty-four miles north-east of Athens, and anchored their ships near the shore close by their camp.

The Persians land at Marathon

Even before this landing the Athenians had heard of the burning of Eretria and had sent Pheidippides, a profes-

The Athenians send to Sparta for aid

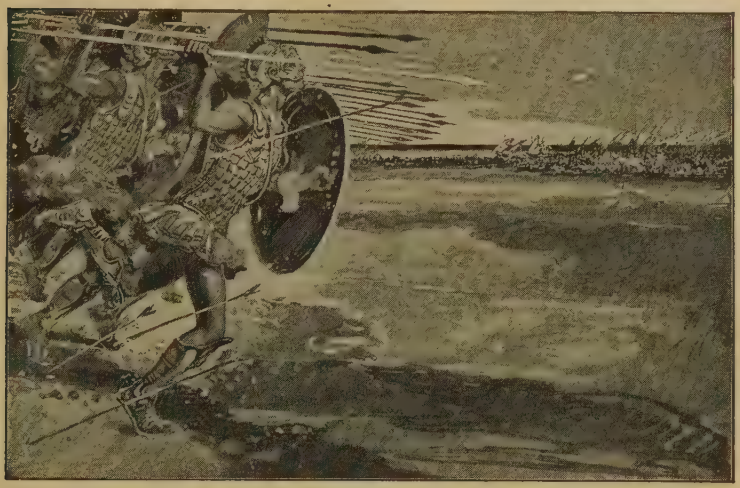
sional runner, to Sparta for aid. He ran with such speed that he covered the entire distance of one hundred and fifty miles between Athens and Sparta—which is the same as the distance between New York and Albany or between Cleveland and Pittsburg—in two days or less. The Spartans told the messenger to say to the Athenians that they could not at that time send troops, because the full moon was at hand, when all citizens must celebrate the feast of Apollo. "We will send aid," they said, "in about five days." This meant that they could not reach the battlefield for at least a week.

The Athenian army at Marathon

Meanwhile the Athenians marched with all possible speed to Marathon, and pitched their camp between the Persian army and Athens. Here they were joined by one thousand men from the friendly little city of Platæa. This made the Athenian army about eleven thousand, while the Persian army, according to the estimate of Herodotus, was many times as large. Miltiades, who had made himself a great lord over the Thracian barbarians to the north, had command of the Greeks on the day of the battle.

The battle of Marathon

For some days no movement was made by either side. But finally the Persians, who had become impatient, drew up in line of battle along the shore. The Athenians, who were almost a mile away, advanced at a very quick step which was almost a run. After a long and hard struggle they defeated the Persians and drove them to their ships. During the last part of the battle it is said that the hands of a Greek soldier were cut off as he clung to a Persian vessel in his desperate purpose to prevent its escape.



ATHENIAN FOOT SOLDIERS CHARGING THE PERSIAN HOSTS AT MARATHON

The Persians sail back to Asia

The Persians embarked very swiftly and sailed away, heading for Athens, where they expected traitors in the city to rise and help them. But Miltiades rallied his army and hurried homeward, not stopping to rest his tired soldiers until they had come to the city. He reached Athens in advance of the Persians, who, finding the city thus defended and the traitors not daring to rise, sailed back to Asia without making an attack.

A glorious achievement

This victory of Marathon was a glorious achievement for Athens and saved for us the wonderful Greece that we know. Its memory gave the people courage and self-reliance and spurred them to greater things.

The Athenian navy

The Athenians were right in believing that they had not seen the last of the Persians, and they were persuaded by Themistocles, one of their statesmen, to build a navy of two hundred ships. From this beginning Athens later became a strong naval power.

Xerxes and his army

17. The Second Persian Invasion.—Five years after the Persians were defeated at Marathon, Darius died. But he had begun, before his death, to prepare for another invasion of Greece. His son Xerxes, who succeeded to the throne, continued these preparations on a very large scale. In the spring of 480 B. C. he marched against Greece. His army was the largest that the men of that time had ever seen. It is said that it contained at least half a million men (the romantic estimate of Herodotus was over five millions), and that the fleet consisted of more than three thousand ships of various kinds, though none larger than a small yacht of our day.

A wonderful sight

This army presented a wonderful sight. There were men in it from forty-six nations and tribes, each wearing their own peculiar costumes and carrying strange kinds of arms. One tribe of Persians had daggers and lassoes; while a band of Ethiopians carried, in addition to their javelins, stone-tipped arrows with shafts of reeds. Skins of wild beasts hung from their shoulders, and their bodies were painted half red and half white.

Crossing the Hellespont

To prevent delay, Xerxes had ordered in advance that a bridge of boats be built across the Hellespont (Dardanelles, separating Asia from Europe), and that it should be all ready on the arrival of his army. It required seven days and seven nights for the Persian forces to cross this bridge, which was nearly one mile long.

The line of march

Let us picture to ourselves the army as it presses forward. The baggage trains and infantry headed the line of march. Behind them came the cavalry and then ten sacred horses with costly trappings. These were followed by the sacred chariot, drawn by eight white horses, the

charioteer walking behind, with reins in hand, for no one was ever allowed to enter this sacred chariot. Then came Xerxes himself, a very handsome man, riding in a splendid chariot and surrounded by a thousand horse-guards with golden apples ornamenting their spears. After Xerxes came the ten thousand "Immortals," picked men of Persian birth. Last of all, at some distance be-

LOOKING TOWARD THERMOPYLÆ FROM THE NORTH-WEST

hind, marched the mass of the army, stretching back along the road farther than eye could reach. If the army as estimated by Herodotus had been arranged in ranks of four and the ranks placed five feet apart, it would have extended farther than the distance between New York City and Chicago.

The pass of Thermopylæ

The Persians met with no opposition until they reached Thermopylæ, a pass which formed the gateway to all northern Greece. If Xerxes could capture this, all Greece

as far south as the Isthmus of Corinth would fall under his power. The pass was about four and one-half miles long, extending east and west between a steep ridge of hills or mountains and the Malian Gulf. It was really a sea-shore road, bordered chiefly by marshes, though in places the deep water washed up far enough to allow boats to land. At one point it was barely wide enough for a wagon to pass.

The three gates

There were three very narrow places, or "gates," in this pass—the west gate, the middle gate, and the east gate. The west gate, or the first that one reaches in coming from the north, was very narrow and bordered by low hills only, so that it was not easy to defend. But at the middle gate there was a mound edged by deep water, across which ran an old wall. Behind this wall the Greeks took their stand, and here the battle was fought.

The Greek army very small

The Greek army which was commanded by the Spartan King Leonidas, was very small. The Athenians had put all their strength into the fleet. They wished to defend the pass against a landing of the Persians at that point.

Guarding the path over the mountains

The entire army consisted of about seven thousand three hundred men, almost the exact number of Cornwallis's army at Yorktown. Of these, one thousand were set to guard the path which ran over the mountains from the north and ended in the rear of the pass of Thermopylæ, behind the point where Leonidas and his army were stationed. If the Persians could send a body of troops over this path it could attack Leonidas and his men in the rear.

A gloomy outlook

The outlook for the little Greek army, face to face with the Persian host, was gloomy enough. But Leonidas did not waver. He was there to defend Thermopylæ.

The Persians attack the little Greek army

Xerxes encamped outside the entrance to the pass; the Greeks were behind the wall at the middle gate. When the Persian scouts were sent in advance of the army to discover what was going on, they saw the Spartan warriors outside the wall combing their long hair and taking exercise, as was their custom before fighting in battle. Four days Xerxes waited for the Greeks to retreat. On the fifth he made an attack. The best of the Persian troops dashed against the little Greek army. For two days the battle raged. Again and again did the Persians advance to the attack, but the stubborn Greeks would not yield an inch. The Persian army was held at bay.

A traitor leads a body of Persians over the mountains

On the evening of the second day, however, a Greek traitor offered for a bribe to lead the Persians over the mountain path. Under his guidance a body of Persians set out early in the evening, took the Greek guards at the top of the mountain by surprise, and passed on without resistance. The next morning Xerxes, having waited until this body of troops should have come up in the rear of Leonidas, ordered the attack. Meanwhile deserters had informed Leonidas of the loss of the path in his rear, and he had sent away two thousand eight hundred of his men.

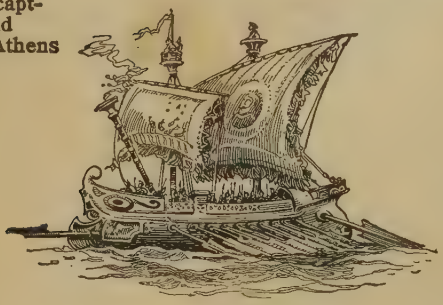
The heroic Leonidas and his brave Spartans

About three thousand six hundred remained, including three hundred Spartans. Leonidas thought, perhaps, that there was a desperate chance of saving the pass. At all events he was too brave to retreat. He and the Spartan heroes were ready to fight to the death. And they did! The battle raged for hours, the Greeks at the last fighting

even with their fists and teeth. Leonidas and the three hundred Spartans fought until not a man of them was left.

The Persians capture and burn Athens

When the Greek fleet heard the news of the defeat at Thermopylæ it sailed to Salamis, an island near Athens. The city of Athens was deserted, the people of all Attica taking refuge in other cities. The Persians took possession of Athens and burned the city to the ground.



A GREEK SHIP

The Greeks win a splendid victory

Off Salamis, the Persian fleet fought the Greek, Xerxes watching the spectacle from a lofty throne built on a hill-side not far away. The battle began at seven in the morning and lasted for seven or eight hours. The Greeks won a splendid victory. Xerxes took his fleet back to Asia and left his best general, Mardonius, to continue the war with Greece on land.

The Greeks crush the Persian forces

The following year the Persians met the Athenians, Spartans, and Platæans in the battle of Platæa, some twenty-five miles north-west of Athens. Here the Greeks won a signal victory and crushed the Persian forces so that they never rallied. Mardonius was killed, and what became of the surviving troops is not known.

A GROUP OF GREEK SOLDIERS, DRAWN FROM SCULPTURED FIGURES IN THE TEMPLE PEDIMENT

Many of them must have been cut off by the peasantry in their flight; probably the rest made their way back to Asia in small bands.

Greek courage had saved European Greece from coming under Persian rule. Without knowing it, the Greeks were fighting for the good of mankind; for it was far better that their ideas and ideals should persist rather than the ideas and ideals of the Persians.

Greek courage saves Greece

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The mountains of Greece cut the land into upland plains and valleys in which the people lived in small groups. 2. Many of the Greeks, however, became sailors and traded extensively. 3. Greece, or Hellas, included not only all of the home country, but also, in its widest sense, the larger Greek world outside of the home country. 4. Among the great memories which the Greeks left behind are the wonderful stories they told, the famous cities they built, and the heroic deeds of their great men. 5. When the Persians made their first invasion of Greece they were defeated at the battle of Marathon. This great victory saved for us the wonderful Greece that we know. 6. At the battle of Thermopylæ, which took place during another Persian invasion of Greece, the heroic Leonidas and his brave Spartans fought until not a man of them was left. 7. In the battles of Salamĭs and Platæa Greek courage saved European Greece from coming under Persian rule.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Explain how it was that the people on the mainland of Greece lived in small groups.

2. What were the two effects of the conditions under which the people lived?

3. If there had been a great river running through the country, what difference would it have made in the life of the people?

4. Explain how it was that many of the Greeks came to be sailors and traders.

5. What was the difference between Hellas and the home country?

6. What can we learn from the wonderful stories the Greeks told? It is well worth your while to know what these stories are. Who were Hercules, Achilles, and Odysseus, and what did they do?

7. Name four famous Greek cities and point them out on the map.

8. Why did Darius invade Greece, and what was the result of this invasion? In what way did the victory of Marathon save for us the wonderful Greece that we know?

9. Compare the size of the two armies at the battle of Thermopylæ. Imagine yourself with Leonidas at Thermopylæ, and tell what you admire in him and his three hundred Spartans?

10. In what way was it better that the Greeks should defeat the Persians?

11. Locate the following: Athens, Sparta, Marathon, Thermopylæ, Salamis, and Platæa.

CHAPTER III

THE GREEKS AS BUILDERS AND ARTISTS

18. Athens at the Time of Its Greatest Splendor.—Although the Persians had burned Athens to the ground, the Athenians soon rebuilt it and made it more beautiful than before. In imagination let us visit the city at the time of its greatest splendor, in the age of Pericles (461–429 B. C.).

Athens the city-state

We must remember that Athens, like other city-states of Greece, was politically not merely a group of houses with a wall running around it. It included also the country outside the wall. The Athenians, then, were not only the people who dwelt within the city walls, but those also who made their homes in the peninsula of Attica.

The city of Athens

In rebuilding the city the Athenians had put up their dwellings with little attention to symmetry of streets, which were narrow, crooked, and crowded with houses. But this was the case in all old cities. The purpose was

to make the walls as small in circuit as possible and therefore easy to defend against assailants. Those of Athens were only about five miles around, enclosing an area very small for the number of people who had to dwell within the city.

19. The People of Athens.—Since the population of Attica was about two hundred and fifty thousand, these may have amounted to seventy-five thousand. The well-to-do Athenian cared little for what we call business. In fact he did not work at all, but spent most of his time out-of-doors with his fellow-men, talking politics in the market-place or attending the public assembly. What the public assembly was we shall see later on.

The well-to-do Athenian cared little for business

He rose very early in the morning—about daybreak—and after a slight breakfast of wine and bread sallied forth bareheaded, with his hair carefully dressed and his cloak pulled about his body, to meet his friends or take part in public affairs. Later in the morning, if he was not called to the public assembly, he would take a walk or ride out to his country house to look after his estate. At noon he enjoyed a hearty meal, his real breakfast, after which he went to the gymnasium either to take exercise or to look on and enjoy the sports while chatting with his friends. At sunset he returned to his home for dinner.

A day with an Athenian

The slaves, of whom there were at this time not less than one hundred thousand in Attica, did most of the physical work of the community. They filled the place of the mass of hired servants, artisans, farm-hands, miners, and even professional men, like lawyers, physicians, writers, of our times. They also acted as stewards

Slavery in Athens

THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS RESTORED

and business managers for merchants. All but the poorest families had one or two, and fifty was not a large number for a well-to-do Athenian to own. Some wealthy citizens counted their slaves by hundreds.

Dwelling-houses small and unattractive

20. The Houses of the Athenians.—The dwelling-houses of the Athenians were small and not at all attractive. The front of the house was bare and in many cases broken only by a single door. When there were windows, they were either in the second story, or, if in the first story, were nine or ten feet from the ground. Oil-lamps were used for lights and drinking-water was drawn from wells and fountains.

The Athenians spent but little time in their homes

But the Athenians cared only for plain and simple homes; for they used their houses mainly as places in which to sleep and eat and as a shelter for their families

ATHENS AND THE ACROPOLIS AT THE PRESENT DAY

and their household goods. Owing partly to their craving curiosity and talkativeness, which made other men's company necessary to them, and partly to the seclusion of their women, which made "society" as we know it impossible, their interests were not in their little-used dwellings, but in the public squares where they met and talked and in such public buildings as their temples and theatres. They would have thought a costly dwelling a mockery of the gods.

HERMES, BY PRAXITELES

21. **The Acropolis.**—If we wish to see the real beauty of Athens, therefore, we must visit the Acropolis, on which stood both temples and statues. This lay nearly in the centre of Athens. It was a lofty mass of rock one thousand feet long, irregularly broad—but never more than five hundred feet—and two hundred feet high. Three of its sides were steep, and were crowned with walls, for in early times it had been selected as a stronghold to be used in case of attack. On its western side alone the approach to the Acropolis is by an easy ascent. Let us, therefore, take the pathway leading up this gentle slope.

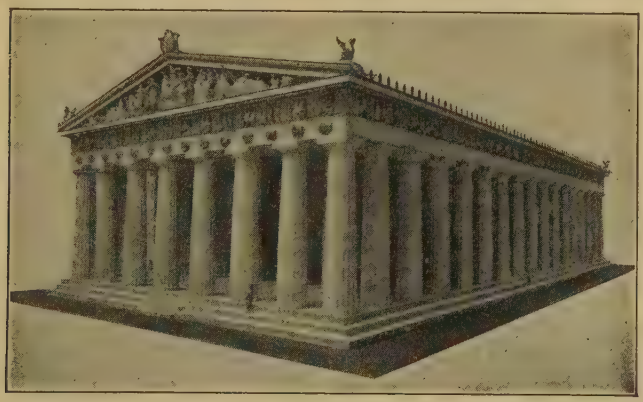
The bronze statue of Athene

We ascend a broad marble stairway and, passing through a magnificent portal, we find ourselves at the summit of the plateau in the presence of an immense bronze statue more than fifty feet high, the work of a sculptor named Phidias. This is Athene, the protecting goddess of the Athenians, the goddess for whom the city was named. She stands in full armor, with outstretched spear and shield. The tip of the spear

and the crest of the helmet can be seen many miles away at sea.

22. The Parthenon.—Near by is Athene's temple, the Parthenon, the noblest building in all Greece. Its calm grandeur and stately beauty charmed every one

A marvel of artistic skill



MODEL OF THE PARTHENON RESTORED, AT THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM, NEW YORK CITY (NOTE SIZE OF SOLDIER BY THE COLUMN)

who saw it, and it was a marvel of artistic skill. It was built of white marble and was surrounded on all sides by white marble pillars which supported the sloping roof.

Besides its vestibules, it had two large chambers, one for the statue of Athene, and one for the sacred treasures. In the first room stood the statue of the goddess, made entirely of ivory and gold. This gorgeous work of art, the creation of Phidias, was forty-seven feet high. The right hand held a statue of a winged Victory, six feet high, and the left one rested on a shield. Her robes, reaching to her feet, were covered with pure gold, and her shield and helmet sparkled with almost priceless jewels. In the

The gorgeous statue of Athene

STATUE OF ATHENE WHICH STOOD IN THE PARTHENON

second of the two rooms the state treasures were kept and guarded.

23. **Greek Statues and Temples.**—The Parthenon was not the only temple upon the Acropolis, all of which were richly adorned with paintings and sculptures, nor were the two statues of Athene the only statues. The Greeks delighted to have their sculptors carve in marble their gods and goddesses. They believed that spending money upon beautiful statues and temples, like those which graced the Acropolis, was an act of piety, and they always applauded the men who used their wealth in this way. They feasted upon such beautiful works of art, many of which still exist for us to enjoy to-day. Among the most familiar statues known to us are the Venus found on the island of Melos; the Hermes, by Praxiteles; and the Discus Thrower, by Myron.

24. **How Athens Secured Money to Adorn the Acropolis.**—You might well ask how Athens came to be wealthy enough to adorn the Acropolis with so many beautiful works of art. A few words will explain. After the defeat of the Persians the Greeks feared that the enemy would again return, a fear felt especially by the Greek cities of Ionia and of the Ægean islands. These cities, therefore, under the leadership of Athens, formed a league, each agreeing to furnish yearly either war-ships or money for

VENUS OF MELOS

a common fund to build a navy. At first this money was kept in a temple at Delos, but later it was transferred to the Parthenon. It amounted to about six hundred thousand dollars a year, a sum which would be worth many times as much now. Some of this money was used to supplement treasury funds in beautifying Athens and the Acropolis, although the cities of the league had not intended it for any such purpose.

25. Greek Gods and Goddesses.—Many of the works of art naturally took the form of statues to the gods, for the gods were familiar beings in the every-day life of the Greeks. Athene, the patron deity of Athens, was one of the goddesses that the Greeks worshipped. They believed that there were many other gods and goddesses who were in control of the affairs of men. The chief of these had their home on Mount Olympus, whose summit, as the people gazed at it from below, was always veiled in mist and clouds. Here dwelt Zeus, the king of the gods and ruler of gods and men; Hera, his wife and sister, queen of heaven; Apollo, the sun-god; Aphrodite, the goddess of love; and Hermes, the messenger of the gods.

Mount Olympus, the home of the chief gods and goddesses

ZEUS

Besides these, according to the Greek belief, there were numerous other gods and spirits of woods and fields and streams. All these, as the Greeks believed, were much like human beings in looks and actions, but they were all beautiful, and were immortal, and did things on a larger scale than human beings could do.

Greek gods much like human beings

26. The Theatre.—The Greeks, then, had what we call artistic feeling; that is, they had a keen sense of

The Greek sense of beauty

beauty. They liked beautiful statues of their gods and heroes, such as were carved by their sculptors, and beautiful buildings, such as were erected by their architects. But they also liked fine literature, such as was written by their poets. They were especially fond of plays.

GREEK THEATRE AT EPIDAURUS

The Greek theatre

In fact, if we wish to see all the free inhabitants of the city at one look, we must go to their great theatre. Here, during the two festivals given each year in honor of Dionysus, the god of wine, sometimes thirty thousand people were present. Do not imagine, however, that this theatre was like ours. It was far from it. It was built on the slope of the Acropolis and was without shelter from rain or sun. When in use it was crowded for a period of several days from dawn until dark. Play after play was put on in competition for a prize. There was no pause, not even for meals, though the people, who

had eaten a hearty breakfast before leaving their homes, lunched from time to time during portions of the play.

A Greek audience at the theatre

The picture is an attractive one. The great theatre, in form a half-circle, with graded rows of seats rising one above the other, is thronged with people dressed in red, white, brown, yellow, and other bright colors, reflecting the rays of the bright sun. The rich sit upon carpets and cushions which they have brought with them; but the great mass sit upon the seats without even rests for their backs. The people are able critics. Now they are hushed as they witness a thrilling scene; now they clap their hands and shout; and now they hiss and groan and kick their heels against the seats. At times they may even throw missiles at the actors if the play does not please them.

The chorus

At the foot of the amphitheatre is a large flat space almost in the shape of a circle. Here a group of people are dancing and singing. They are the chorus who chanted the emotions aroused by the action of the play, and beyond them, on a narrow stage a few feet high, are the actors, who wear masks. There is little scenery.

The theatre and Greek life

To the Greeks the theatre was not simply a place of amusement as with us. It started as a religious festival, and later came to have a great influence over their lives. It was to them as magazine, newspaper, novel, and teacher combined. The plays were of a high order. Some of the greatest dramas of all times were produced on the Athenian stage, plays which we read and study to-day because of their beauty and surpassing literary quality.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Athens, like other city-states of Greece, included also the country outside the wall. 2. The Parthenon was the noblest building in all Greece. 3. The Greeks had a keen sense of beauty. They liked beautiful statues of their gods and heroes, such as were carved by their sculptors, and beautiful buildings, such as were erected by their architects. All their temples were richly adorned with paintings and sculptures.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Imagine yourself to be an Athenian and tell how you spent some day.

2. Taking an imaginary trip in Athens, describe the streets and the houses, and then ascend the Acropolis and tell what you see there.

3. What part did slavery play in the life of Athens?

4. Who was Athene? Get as definite an idea as you can of her statue in the Parthenon.

5. Name three of the most familiar Greek statues known to us.

6. What and where was the home of the chief Greek gods and goddesses?

7. In imagination visit a Greek theatre and tell what you see there. What large part did the theatre play in the life of the Greeks?

8. Locate on your map every country that is mentioned; also every city.

CHAPTER IV

GREEK BOYS AND GREEK MEN

The training of the body

27. The Training of the Athenian Boy.—As the Greeks believed that a beautiful body indicated a beautiful soul, they made bodily exercise an important part of a boy's training. In Athens gymnastics were taught at the wrestling grounds, which were partly shaded fields on the outskirts of the city. Here, with naked bodies well oiled, the boys practised wrestling, jumping, boxing, running,

and throwing the discus and spear. When the work was over they scraped off the oil and plunged into fresh water for a bath. As a result of their training in sports the boys had strong, manly, graceful bodies.

The school buildings

At sunrise every morning, in all kinds of weather, the Athenian boys trooped to school. The school buildings were not large and pleasant like ours. They were ill-furnished and without desks. Sometimes the school was held in the open air, and then there were not even benches.

Music and grammar

At school the boys were taught music and grammar. Music included singing and playing on musical instruments, though the main object was an acquaintance with the songs of the poets. In the study of grammar, largely through the use of Homer and other Greek poets, the boy was not only to learn how to use his mother tongue, but also to gain knowledge of life, of the gods and his relations to them, and also of the kind of service he should render his state. For the Athenian always kept in mind the preparation of the boy for the part he was later to play as one of the rulers of the Athenian state.

The training of girls

As for the girls, they received no training even in reading or writing, except what their mothers and nurses were able and willing to give them. To the Greeks this seemed quite enough, for Greek women were expected to spend nearly all their time within their homes attending to the duties of their households. The girls were therefore taught to cook, spin, weave, and do things pertaining to the care of the home and to the children in the home.

The training of the body

28. **The Training of the Spartan Boy.**—The life of a boy in Sparta was one that you would think rather severe, but very likely he got used to it and enjoyed his games and

SPARTAN WARRIORS

sports. At seven years of age he was taken from his home for good and sent to a school-master, who was a state official having other boys under his care. All the boy's time was occupied in school work, in which the training of the body received most emphasis. Exercise in the gymnasium was constant and thorough, and included running, wrestling, throwing the spear, riding, and a rough game which resembled foot-ball.

The life of the boys rough and hard

The conditions of the life of the boys were rough and hard. Their beds were of reeds and rushes which they collected from the river, where they bathed every day, no matter what the weather. Their clothes were very light, the same in winter as in summer. They wore no shoes nor hats. For much of their food they were obliged to forage or to obtain it by stealth. To be sure, a boy caught in the act of stealing was punished, but because he was clumsy and not because he had done wrong.

Every boy trained for war

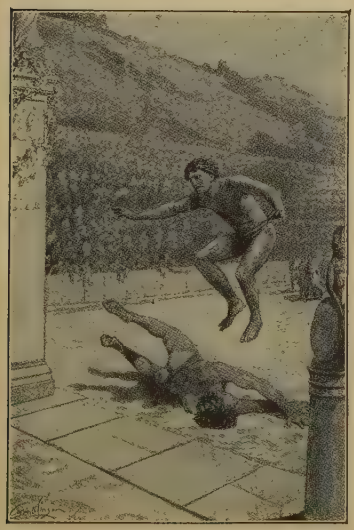
DISCUS THROWER, BY MYRON

At twenty, boys entered military service. Indeed, the great aim of the Spartans was to make of every boy a hardy warrior. They cared very little for anything but the ability to make and keep Sparta a strong city. The best Spartan, from their point of view, was the man who was able to endure hardships, and who was strong in courage and skilful in battle. The famous farewell of the Spartan mother, "Come

home with your shield or on it," shows that the women worked for the same end. The man was expected without a moment's hesitation to sacrifice property, wife, children, or life itself for the welfare of Sparta. He who had shown himself a coward was shunned and scorned by all. The life of the individual was held as nothing compared to the good of the state.

SCENE ON THE ROAD TO OLYMPIA

29. The Olympic Games.—The Greeks held many festivals in honor of their gods, the most famous of which were the Olympic games. These were held once in every four years at Olympia in Elis. At first they lasted but one day, but later the time was extended to five days. While the games were going on, wars between Greek states ceased so that the roads were safe for travellers, who came from all over Greece and from the Greek colonies. Those from a distance brought slaves, who carried such needful things as tents, bedding, clothing,



END OF A FOOT-RACE—THE VICTOR LEAPING OVER HIS FALLEN RIVAL

and food; for there were no hotels in those days. Contestants from all the Greek states took part. They were required to train for the games for ten months, and for the thirty days just before the games in the gymnasium at Elis.

The games

The games began at daybreak and lasted until after dark. The earliest competition was the short distance foot-race. Longer foot-races were added later, then wrestling, boxing, and the pentachlon, a contest made up of five events, viz., running, jumping, wrestling, throwing the discus, and throwing the javelin. A later contest still, but one which came to be the most important of all, was the race of chariots with four horses.

CROWNING AN OLYMPIC VICTOR

This prize for all winners was a crown of wild olive, which was the greatest object of ambition for every Greek youth. You may think this of little value. But there was also a banquet given in honor of the victor. Poets were hired to sound his praises and men of his own city bore him home in triumph. Sometimes, when he reached his home, part of the city walls were taken down in order that he might not have to travel in the common road. A statue also was often erected for him, and he was highly honored by his fellow-citizens all the rest of his life.

The rewards of the victor

30. The Greek Assembly in the Open Air.—At the age of eighteen the Athenian boy was required to take an oath never to disgrace his holy arms; never to forsake his comrade in the ranks, but to fight for the holy temples and the common welfare, either alone or with others; to leave his country better than he had found it; to obey the laws; and to hold in honor the religion of his country. When he took the oath he received the warrior's shield and spear. He was made a full citizen at twenty, when he became a member of the public assembly.

The Athenian boy becomes a citizen

The oath shows that Athens gave to every citizen a share in the common life of the city and expected him to take his part in the work of the state. As a member of the public assembly he helped to make the laws and to decide what should be done for Athens. In other words, he was a member of the Athenian democracy, in which the citizens were both the rulers and the ruled. This great truth, that every free citizen should have a part in making the laws and in ruling the state, the Greeks were the first to teach the world.

Every free citizen a member of the public assembly

The assembly was held in the open air, and early in the forenoon, on a hill just outside the city. Every man who attended in the time of Pericles was paid a small fee, and any member of the assembly, whether rich or poor, had the right to address the meeting. The speakers wore crowns of myrtle and stood on a stone platform ten or eleven feet high, reached by a flight of steps.

The public assembly

31. Pericles the Orator and Statesman.—Let us imagine ourselves at one of these meetings on a day when Pericles is to speak. There are thousands in the vast throng, for all are eager to hear the gifted orator. The

place of assembly is in the shape of a half-circle and covers an area of two and one-half acres. Some of the men sit on stools brought from their homes and others find places upon the bare earth.

Pericles the orator

When Pericles ascends the stone platform we note his serious face and his noble bearing. At once we fall under the spell of his presence. It is clear that he loves Athens and feels a deep interest in the welfare of the people. He speaks briefly, but his words carry weight, and he convinces his hearers that they should vote for the measure he urges upon them.

PERICLES

Pericles was a man of wealth, accomplished, broad-minded, and devoted to the interests of the people. He tried to teach them that each man's happiness depended on the welfare of the whole body politic.

Pericles the statesman

As a far-seeing statesman, he believed that all citizens should share in the rule of the city, and that they should be trained for that duty. He therefore encouraged education. As a lover of art, he sought to make Athens beautiful, and it was largely through his influence that the Acropolis was adorned with statues and with the Parthenon, the most beautiful temple in Greece and in the ancient world.

32. **Socrates the Philosopher and Teacher.**—Another well-known Athenian was Socrates, who was both a philosopher and teacher. As a philosopher—a word which means a lover of wisdom—he was a sincere seeker after truth. As a teacher he wished to help others toward right living.

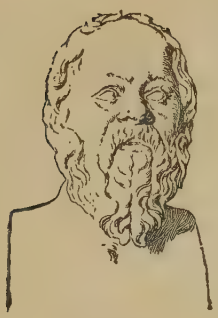
There were many philosophers in Greece who spent their time teaching in public places for money. They were surrounded by rich men and youths just entering upon their duties as citizens. Their teachings were intended to train for cleverness and power in debate. **Greek philosophers**

Socrates stood quite apart from this group. He was a man of ungainly figure, with a snub nose, thick lips, and bulging eyes. He dressed shabbily and wore no shoes. Although he was poor, he refused to take pay for his teaching. He even gave up his work as a sculptor and devoted all his time to teaching men to seek after the truth and learn what was best for their welfare and happiness. **Socrates the man**

He talked with all who cared to listen to him, whether they were rich or poor. Day after day he could be seen in the market-place, in the gymnasium, or in the streets, teaching a crowd of delighted, eager listeners, men and boys alike. He asked them questions to make them think about the deep problems of life. "Know thyself" was his constant theme. **Socrates the teacher**

But he talked so plainly about men's faults that he made many enemies, who at last decided that they would try to put him out of the way. They therefore brought two charges against him. One was that he was false to the gods, and the other that he was giving very harmful advice to young men. He was tried before a jury of 501 men. At the end of the trial 220 of the jury voted in favor of Socrates and 281 against him. **Socrates makes enemies**

It was decided that he must die by drinking poison, the universal way then in Greece of inflicting the death penalty. So he was sent to prison, where he remained **The death of Socrates**



SOCRATES

about a month until his death. During that time his friends visited him daily and always found him cheerful. On the day of his death he was surrounded by a group of sorrowing friends from the hour when the prison doors were opened until evening. Then Socrates drank the hemlock. Up to the last moment of his life he talked bravely about the meaning of life and the future of the human soul. Another famous Greek philosopher was Plato. He was the disciple of Socrates and the teacher of Aristotle who, as we are soon to learn, was the teacher of Alexander the Great.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. To the Greeks a beautiful body indicated a beautiful soul. 2. The aim of the Spartans was to make of every boy a hardy warrior. 3. The Greeks were the first to teach the world that every free citizen should have a part in making the laws and in ruling the state. 4. Pericles was a great orator and statesman. 5. Socrates was a great philosopher and teacher.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Why did the Greeks pay so much attention to the training of the body? Tell all you can about the school life of the Athenian boy and of the Spartan boy.

2. What were the Olympic games, and what were the rewards of the victor?

3. What is meant by Athenian democracy? What great truth were the Greeks the first to teach the world?

4. What do you admire in Pericles? What did he do for Athens?

5. What kind of man was Socrates? How did he look? What did he teach?

CHAPTER V

MEN WHO CARRIED GREEK WAYS OF LIVING TO OTHER LANDS

33. Spread of Greek Knowledge and Ways of Living.—We have briefly recalled a few of the greatest memories of the Greeks—their myths and stories, their famous cities that still survive, and their glorious victories over the Persian hosts. In imagination we have visited Athens, and admired the work of her builders, her artists, and her dramatists, and learned something of her great orators and statesmen, and of her philosophers and teachers.

Sailors, traders, and colonists

All these men did great things for their city-states and for their country. But the influence of Greek thought and character was not confined to the small country which we know by that name on our maps, nor to the men who lived within its boundaries; for the knowledge and ways of living which the Greeks learned spread abroad to other lands. The men who brought about the spread of learning were the sailors, traders, and colonists, not with such a purpose in mind, but just in the ordinary every-day work of their lives.

Greek colonies

We have already seen that the many excellent harbors on the eastern coast of Greece and in the islands dotting the Ægean Sea all the way from Greece to Asia Minor encouraged the Greeks to engage in trade with other lands. They built many ships and traded extensively. They went to the shores of the Black Sea for grain, which was abundant there, as it is yet. Here they planted colonies, and also as we have seen in other parts of Asia Minor, in

the islands of the Ægean Sea, and around the shores of the Mediterranean. How widespread these colonies were a brief list will show you. Smyrna in Asia Minor, Cyrene in Africa, Sybaris, Croton, Tarentum in Italy, Syracuse in Sicily, and Massilia (Marseilles) in France were a few of them.

34. The Lack of Union among the Greek States.—Of the men who in a later period did much to spread the Greek ways of living, none is to be compared with Alexander the Great. The story of his career is one of the most wonderful in history, and for its beginning we must return to Athens and note the condition of affairs in Greece about the time when Pericles died (429 B. C.).

Lack of union a fatal weakness among the Greeks

All along we have noticed the lack of union among the Greek states. It was the fatal weakness of the Greek people. The Athenian loved Athens, the Spartan loved Sparta. Each was willing, if need be, to give up his life for his own city. But there his patriotism ended. He cared almost nothing for any part of Greece outside of the narrow boundaries of his native state, and worse than that, the jealousies between the various city-states kept them apart. They never united except for brief periods, and then in the face of great common dangers like the Persian invasions.

Philip of Macedon the master and leader of Greece

Even when a group of cities did unite, it was, as a rule, under the leadership of the one which was strong enough to overshadow all the rest. Athens, Sparta, and Thebes in turn tried to make itself supreme, but in each case the attempt failed. For about a century after the death of Pericles the Greek cities were either fighting or preparing to fight each other. At last Philip, King of Macedonia,

in a great battle (the battle of Chæronea, 338 B. C.) conquered all the Greek cities and made himself master and leader of Greece.

The Macedonians as a people were strong, rude men of peasant race, who lived in a region lying north of Thessaly and cut off from it by lofty mountains. They were mountain shepherds, having a keen relish for hunting and for war. The man who had not killed a wild boar could not sit at the banquet with other men. Such people knew little and cared little for the refinements of life. To a great degree without cities and even without fixed places of abode, and eating and drinking from wooden platters and cups, they did not mind toil and hardship. These sturdy men, with King Philip as leader, proved resistless in battle, and the united armies of Greece went down before them.

The Macedonians

35. **Alexander the Great.**—Two years after the battle of Chæronea Philip died and his son Alexander ascended the throne. He was then only twenty years old, but had already showed signs of becoming a masterful leader of men. He was of average height, of a fair complexion and ruddy face, with the body of a trained athlete.

From his early boyhood he had been interested in books, and studied under Greek tutors. At thirteen he was put under the instruction of Aristotle, one of the world's greatest philosophers, and through him, no doubt, acquired his strong love of Homer and the other Greek poets. It is said that he was so familiar with the "Iliad" that he could repeat much, if not all, of it from memory, and that during his campaigns he always had a copy with

Alexander as a boy

him. Certain it is that during his entire career he made Achilles, its leading character, his hero and example.

Alexander and the horse

A characteristic story is told that shows how clever and intelligent the boy was. A beautiful but untamed horse was brought to his father's court. It was so hard to bring under control that it was about to be sent away when Alexander begged that he might try his hand at taming it. Having noticed that the animal was afraid of its shadow, he turned its face toward the sun. Then, keeping hold of the reins, he let it go forward a little before curbing it gently and jumping on its back. Soon he was galloping over the course as easily as if he had been master of the horse for years. This is suggestive not only of his bodily skill, but also of his skill in handling animals.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Alexander's ambition

36. Alexander in Persia and the East.—Soon after Alexander became king, the Greek cities, counting upon his youth and lack of experience, tried to regain their liberty and free themselves from Macedonian supremacy. But he quickly put down the uprising and then at once turned his attention to the East. For his ambition was to conquer Persia and all of the East and form there a great empire of which he should be the supreme head.

He crosses the Hellespont

With an army of thirty thousand infantry and four thousand five hundred cavalry he crossed the Hellespont. As he approached the shore he hurled his spear

into the earth, and in full armor leaped upon the land. In such manner he chose to show how he would conquer Asia and become its master.

He visits Troy

Before taking up his march he visited the scenes of the Trojan War, and there stood by the tomb of Achilles, whom he so much admired. At Ilium (Troy) he visited the column set up in memory of Achilles, and worshipped at the temple dedicated to Athene. Later he built a new city on the site of Troy.

His troops admire him

In the many battles that he fought in his career of conquest he was always foremost in a dash upon the enemy and always fearless in the presence of danger. This was one of many reasons why his troops admired him. They also loved him because he took a deep personal interest in their welfare. For he often went to see those who were sick and tried to comfort them by kindness and sympathy.

His wonderful career

We cannot follow closely his career of conquest through Asia, which lasted about ten years. We can only say that wherever he went he was successful. He not only made himself master of the Persian Empire, but even extended his conquest into India. He hoped to become the ruler of the world. In the midst of a wonderful career, however, he fell sick and died at the age of thirty-two.

Alexander a builder of cities

37. Alexander Carries Greek Ideas into the Persian World.—Alexander was more than a warrior and conqueror. He also carried Greek ideas into the Persian world. This he did partly by the cities he founded. Through his work the arts of Greece were carried to the many parts of the East where, we are told, he founded more than seventy cities. He showed great ability in

selecting their sites, many of which became great trade centres and played a large part in the commerce of the world.

How these cities grew

It is interesting to know how these cities grew from small beginnings to be of great importance. At first we find in each merely a group of tired-out soldiers from Alexander's army. But, as the city grows, Greek traders, merchants, and workmen are attracted to it. These were followed by Greek philosophers and men of science. Then in time each new city became a centre of Greek life and thought and its influence spread into the surrounding country.

ALEXANDER IN BATTLE. FROM THE SARCOPHAGUS OF THE SATRAPS AT CONSTANTINOPLE

38. The City of Alexandria.—The most important of all these cities was Alexandria, which was founded in Egypt at the mouth of the Nile. Alexander saw the possibilities of the site of the village already there, and at once had the harbor built so that it would be of practical use. He laid out two principal streets crossing each other at right angles, with less important ones parallel to them, and marked sites for both Greek and Egyptian temples. The two principal thoroughfares were adorned with colonnades for footways.

Centre of intellectual life

Alexandria became one of the leading commercial cities of the ancient world. Caravans from the Persian Gulf

and ships on the Red Sea brought the wonderful products of India and China. Spices from Arabia, gold and ivory from Africa, amber from the Baltic, copper from Cyprus, and many more things from the ports of the Mediterranean came here to be exchanged. It was the great market where the wealth of Europe changed hands with that of Asia. Yet it was not for its commerce that Alexandria was most noted. It was more famous as a centre of intellectual life, due in a large measure to the wisdom of the Egyptian rulers.

Its extensive museum and its great library

If we had visited the city a century after the death of Alexander, that is, at the time of the Ptolemies (the dynasty founded by Alexander's general, Ptolemy, after the great conqueror's death), we should have been most interested in its extensive museum, or university, as we should call it to-day. This was a collection of buildings which received its name because the work to be done there was sacred to the Muses. There were art galleries, lecture-rooms, and dining-halls; also beautiful gardens with shady walks, statues, and fountains. Here poets and scholars walked and talked and sang. Its great library of about five hundred thousand volumes or manuscripts had been selected with great care in various countries. There was none other like it in the world.

Scholars in the museum

On our visit we should have found, working in this museum, hundreds of scholars pursuing their studies with all the aid that wealth could supply; for the Ptolemies were eager to encourage the search for truth of all kinds. The scholars were even fed and lodged by the King.

Ptolemy and Columbus

One of them (Eratosthenes) was a student of geography. Like modern geographers, he wrote and talked

about the roundness of the earth and tried to measure its size on the equator. A student of his work, named Ptolemy, some centuries later became the most famous of map-makers, and was very helpful to Columbus when he was planning for his first voyage across the Atlantic. In such ways students working quietly in the splendid library of Alexandria were finding out things of great value to the world. Here and elsewhere Greek scholars were doing much to advance the cause of science. The work of the Greeks in medicine, botany, mathematics, astronomy, and other sciences proved most helpful to men of science in later times.

39. **The Spread of Greek Ideas and Ways of Living.**— Historians differ as to what Alexander's purpose may have been in founding these Greek cities of which Alexandria was the chief. But whatever his purpose, we know that he prepared the way for the spread of Greek ideas and ways of living. For wherever the Greeks went as merchants, traders, and colonists, they carried not only Greek art and culture, but Greek life. Temples, theatres, and gymnasiums were built, all repeating the life of the home cities. These buildings, adorned with graceful columns and carvings, and decorated with beautiful statues, paintings, and vases, all wrought with exquisite workmanship, became the carriers of Greek civilization to many peoples of many lands.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Greek sailors, traders, and colonists brought about the spread of Greek knowledge and ways of living. 2. The lack of union was a fatal weakness among the Greeks. 3. Alexander the Great made

himself master of the Persian Empire and extended his conquest into India. He also carried Greek ideas into the Persian world. 4. He founded many cities, the greatest of which was Alexandria in Egypt.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Point out on your map as many Greek colonies as you can.
2. In what way did a lack of union prove a fatal weakness among the Greeks?
3. Tell what you can about the boyhood of Alexander the Great.
4. What was his ambition after he came to be king? What did he accomplish as a warrior and conqueror?
5. Why was it an advantage to the world that he should found many cities? Locate the most important of these and tell all you can about it.
6. Are you locating on your map all the countries and cities mentioned in the text?

THE ROMANS AND WHAT WE HAVE LEARNED FROM THEM

CHAPTER VI

HOW THE ROMANS BEGAN

40. The Conquering Romans.—While Alexander was conquering the East and extending Greek life and learning in Asia, another people to the west of Greece, of whom Alexander probably knew little, was rising into power. These people were the Romans, and they dwelt in Italy. At this time they had just mastered their nearest neighbors and were carrying their conquests to more distant tribes. Before completing their work in the world, they were to become masters not only of Italy, but of all the countries on the Mediterranean and of western Europe. Let us look at them and their country more closely.

Italy well situated for world trade

41. Geographical Conditions in Italy.—Italy, like Greece, is a peninsula, although it is much larger than Greece. It stretches far down from the Alps into the Mediterranean for a distance of seven hundred miles. Lying between Greece, Spain, Gaul, and Egypt, in the centre of the Mediterranean, ancient Italy was well situated for world trade. But, as its eastern coast was steep and without good harbors, this trade had to develop on its southern and western shores, where the harbors were good and more frequent.

Although mountainous, the surface was quite different from that of Greece, for the mountains did not divide it into many small sections. The Apennines, running through the centre of the peninsula, formed a mountain belt with a strip of coast-land on either side, that on the west being much wider and more fertile than the one on the east. Easy mountain passes, however, connected the two coasts and served, in the early days of Roman history, to unite the various tribes rather than to separate them.

The mountains of Italy

The mountains to the north of Italy, the Alps, also contained many passes, but these did not serve so good a purpose. For as the mountains were less steep on the northern slope than on the southern, hostile tribes could the more easily swoop down over them, bringing terror and destruction to the dwellers of the plains.

The Alps

The rivers of Italy were mostly short. Only two of them were good for trade. These were the Po and the Tiber. It was on the banks of the Tiber, fifteen miles from its mouth and midway between the sea and the mountains, that Rome was situated. Her position, in the heart of Italy, helped her to make herself the commercial centre of the peninsula, and at the same time served to divide her enemies so that she could subdue them one by one. She was also near enough to the sea for commerce with the outside world, and yet far enough from it to be safe from the pirates of early times.

The situation of Rome

42. **The Beginnings of Rome.**—The early Romans had other enemies than pirates to deal with, and these were the neighboring tribes. They had therefore selected, as a site for their village, one of a group of seven hills and upon it had built a stronghold. Later on they united

A village of mud huts

with another small tribe living to the north on a second of the seven hills, and formed a city-state. This they enclosed by a wall. Two small tribes living within a village of mud huts, protected by two hills and a single wall—such was the second stage in the growth of the city which was soon to cover the seven hills and in time make herself the mistress of the world.

Legends

43. The Story of Romulus and Remus.—Who the Romans were, where they came from, or when they settled in Italy we do not know. But the story of Romulus and Remus tells what the early Romans believed. It is one of the many legends that have come down to us. These legends are not history, but at the same time they may have been founded on actual occurrences in some instances.

The twin boys

According to the legend, the Roman people sprung from one of the heroes of Troy, Æneas, who wandered to Italy and married the daughter of the King of Latium (the central province of Italy, of which Rome afterward became the head). One of his descendants was the mother of Romulus and Remus, twin boys, whose father was Mars, the god of war. Soon after they were born the wicked King, their uncle, had them thrown into the Tiber. The basket in which they were set adrift was caught by the roots of a fig tree, a wolf suckled them, and a shepherd, finding them, brought them up as his own children.

Romulus and Remus

When Romulus became a man he slew the wicked King, and the two brothers founded a city (753 B. C.) on the banks of the Tiber near the place where they were rescued. In a quarrel, Romulus killed his brother Remus and called the city they had built after himself, Roma. Here he

reigned alone for many years, made laws for the people, and gave them a religion. During a thunderstorm he was carried away to the skies, and thereafter he was worshipped as a god.

The last Roman King

44. The Story of Horatius at the Bridge.—Romulus was followed, so legend tells us, by other kings, including some of Etruscan blood, the Etruscans being a tribe to the north of Rome. But in time the Romans drove the last of these rulers, called Tarquin the Proud, out of the city and shut the gates against him.

The Romans driven across the bridge

According to the story which the Romans proudly told, Tarquin, desiring to regain his power, sought help from certain Etruscan cities. With a large force he marched against Rome and captured the fortified hill on the opposite bank of the Tiber. The Romans, driven from the hill, retreated across a narrow wooden bridge to the city. It was plain that if this bridge was not destroyed the enemy would soon be in Rome itself.

Three brave warriors

Horatius, a brave warrior, therefore called to the citizens to cut down the bridge while he and two companions turned at its entrance and faced the advancing army. These three brave warriors, standing side by side, with their strong shields held the enemy at bay, while other Romans furiously hacked away at the wooden timbers of the bridge. When at last it began to give way, Horatius begged his companions, both of whom were wounded, to save themselves by retreating.

Horatius saves Rome from capture

He remained alone to guard the bridge—one man against an army. Amazed at his bravery, the enemy drew back for a moment and then rushed upon him with redoubled fury. But they were too late to save the bridge. With a

crash the last supports broke and it was swept away by the swiftly flowing river. Clothed as he was in heavy armor, Horatius plunged into the muddy water and, amid a shower of arrows from the enemy, swam unharmed to the opposite shore, where his friends greeted him with shouts of joy.

The two classes of people

45. The Bitter Struggle between the Patricians and the Plebeians.—Although the Romans were rid of the Tarquins, they did not escape serious troubles in governing themselves. By the time they had driven away their last King (509 B. C.) they had within their walls several tribes which they had brought in, one after another, to join the city-state. From the beginning the people were divided into two classes. The first three tribes, two of which we have already mentioned, were called Patricians, and those added later were called Plebeians. The Patricians thought themselves better than the Plebeians, so they tried to keep in their own hands all the important powers of government. They insisted that the principal officials of Rome should be selected from their own number. In time the Plebeians objected to such a plan as being unfair to themselves and demanded better treatment.

The Plebeians win a victory

A long and bitter struggle began, which lasted hundreds of years. During this time the Plebeians secured the famous Twelve Tables of the Law, which made plain to all just what the laws were; and finally they won a great victory by obtaining, through a body which was known as the Plebeian Assembly, a share in making the laws (287 B. C.). So it came about that all the freemen, as in Athens, could now have some share in governing themselves.

46. The Story of Cincinnatus.—While this struggle was going on within the city itself, the Romans were in constant warfare with other tribes and cities in various parts of Italy. Sometimes they met with defeat for a time, but in the main they were successful and grew steadily by adding to their number other tribes and cities, which, however, they kept wholly subject to themselves. A glimpse of one of these early wars with a mountain tribe is given in the story of Cincinnatus.

The Romans in constant warfare

According to this legend, the Roman army had been surrounded and was in a very dangerous situation. When the bad news came to Rome, there seemed to be only one thing to do. That was to appoint as dictator their leading citizen, Cincinnatus, a member of an old Patrician family. Messengers found him ploughing his little farm just across the Tiber. When he received the news of his appointment he wiped from his forehead the sweat and dust and at once left his plough. Entering the city, he raised an army and promptly marched against the enemy. In sixteen days he had defeated them, and was back again living the simple life of a modest farmer.

Cincinnatus defeats the enemy

A ROMAN SLINGER

47. The Remarkable Success of the Romans.—The stories of Horatius and of Cincinnatus suggest to us the kind of men these early Romans were. For nearly five hundred years after the alleged founding of Rome (753 B. C.) such men had slowly but surely extended her power until they had made her the leader of Italy. The remarkable success of the Romans, we shall

find, therefore, was due in part to the geography of Rome and Italy, but in a far higher degree to the men themselves. They did a great work in Italy, and later on in the world outside of Italy, because they were fitted for their task. It was what the men were in themselves that explains their great deeds.

48. The Early Roman's Manner of Living.—Before following them into this larger phase of their history, let us pause to note a few conditions of their every-day living, a few prominent traits in their character, and a few ways in which they dealt with other cities, tribes, and peoples.

Roman peasants

For hundreds of years after the founding of their city, most of the Romans were peasants who owned little farms many of which contained not more than four acres. As a rule they lived outside the walls, coming into the city only on market days and for special occasions. The father and his sons did most of the work, as there were but few slaves and the families were large. There were also cattle-owners and some traders and merchants. Nearly all that they needed in food and clothing was prepared in the home by the women-folk and slaves.

A Roman hut

Let us, in imagination, visit one of these peasant families and see for ourselves how few were their home comforts. We find the entire family living in a mere hut without windows and with a single door. On the side of the room facing the door is a hearth, and in the roof directly above is an opening which serves the double purpose of letting out the smoke and letting in the light.

Their food and dress

Sitting about a rude table, on stools equally rude, we find the family eating meal boiled with water and drinking

either water or milk. Their dress is as simple as their house and food. The man has wrapped about his waist a strip of cloth, and over this he wears a woollen shirt, or tunic, which has short sleeves and reaches down as far as his knees. We notice, however, that when he leaves his house a little later to appear in public he puts on a toga. This is a white woollen blanket, which he folds before gracefully wrapping it about his body. Both men and women go without hats and without stockings, but they wear shoes or sandals.

THE SIMPLE DRESS OF THE ROMANS

49. The Roman Family.—Such was the early Roman's manner of living. The father had absolute power in his own household. He could do what he pleased with all the household goods. He also had the right to banish, sell as slaves, or even put to death, his children. Although this may seem strange to us, it did not seem strange to the Roman. To him the family meant much, but a single individual meant little. In order that the family might be strong, any member of it must be ready to give up all for its best welfare. The reason for this was that fight-

Absolute power of the father

Why the father had absolute power

ing was a constant necessity. Every family was a little military company, and the captain had to be obeyed instantly and wholly or all might be killed or made slaves. It was better, then, they thought, for the head of the family to decide what was best to do, even if the decision led to the death of his own child.

The heroic Romans

50. Roman Patriotism.—Just as a member of the household should be willing to put aside any wishes and interests of his own for the good of the family, so should any citizen of Rome be ready to pass through any trial, endure any suffering, meet any danger, or even give up life itself, if by so doing he could better serve his country. The Romans of those earlier days were faithful to one another and loyal to their state. They cheerfully submitted to law and order. In fact the world has never seen a finer example of patriotism. Their intense love of country played a very important part in making them great. Such men were heroes.

Respect for law and order

51. The Romans Extend Their Power in Italy.—Their respect for law and order not only made it easier for them to unite, but it also helped them to bind together the peoples they conquered. For although they treated these conquered peoples as subjects, they gave them better laws and far greater security than they had had before, and allowed them much freedom in managing their local affairs.

"Little Romes"

On the conquered land the Romans settled communities of loyal Roman citizens; and these "Little Romes," scattered here and there throughout Italy, became centres for the spread of Roman ideas and ways of doing things. All the tribes and cities were connected with Rome by a

superb system of public roads. Thus the Romans steadily extended their power until, about five hundred years after the founding of the city, they had become the masters of all the present Italy south of the Rubicon River.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Italy was well situated for world trade. 2. Rome also had an important situation. 3. The remarkable success of the Romans was due in a measure to the geography of Rome and Italy, but in a far higher degree to the men themselves. 4. In the early days of their history the Romans lived a simple life. 5. The father had absolute power in his own household. 6. The Romans were a heroic and nation-loving people.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Explain in what way both Italy and Rome were well situated.
2. Tell the stories of Romulus and Remus, of Horatius at the bridge, and of Cincinnatus. What do you think of Horatius? Of Cincinnatus?
3. What was the bitter struggle between the Patricians and the Plebeians, and how did it end?
4. How do you explain the remarkable success of the Romans?
5. Imagine yourself in the home of a Roman and tell all you can about it.
6. In what ways were the Romans patriotic? What do you admire in these people?
7. Tell what you can about how the Romans extended their power in Italy.

CHAPTER VII

THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN ROME AND CARTHAGE

Rome in control of Italy

52. How the Struggle Began.—After Rome had gained control of the tribes and cities in Italy, and had made their people either citizens or allies, it was plainly her duty to defend them against their enemies and to protect their

commerce. It became necessary, after carrying her conquests to the southern shores of Italy, for her to extend them farther.

The Greek cities in Italy and Sicily

The Greek cities of that region, as well as those of the neighboring island of Sicily, had been from time to time much vexed by bands of sea robbers. The cities would not unite for defence, but, like the Greek cities of their home land, held aloof from one another and even quarrelled among themselves. The cities of Sicily had frequently called in Carthage to help them settle their troubles, and this gave her a footing on the island.

Carthage a trading city

Carthage was a famous trading city on the north coast of Africa (close by where Tunis now is), almost directly south of Rome and about a hundred miles away. Her population was perhaps a million, and she had control of much of northern Africa, of the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, and also of parts of Sicily and Spain. Her immense commerce had given her great power, which of course she wished to extend just as Rome wished to extend hers. This could be done only by destroying the Roman fleets, for no two countries in those days would share trade in peaceful competition.

The first war with Carthage

The two cities, therefore, became bitter rivals; and as only a narrow strait between Sicily and Italy separated them, they were bound to come to blows for the possession of the island. When, in 264 B. C., Rome sent aid to one of the Greek cities of Sicily, Carthage accepted the act as a challenge, and the first Carthaginian war began. It lasted twenty-four years. Carthage met with severe defeat. She was obliged to give up Sicily, and had to pay Rome an enormous sum of money.

10°
5°
0°
5°
10°
15°
20°
40°
35°
30°
GAUL
SPAIN
ITALY
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
Massilia
L. Trasimenus
Rome
Capua
Cannae
Brundisium
Tarentum
Saguntum
New Carthage
Carthage
Zama
NUMIDIA
MAURETANIA
AFRICA
THE WARS WITH CARTHAGE
Hannibal's March to frontier of Italy

53. **Hamilcar and Rome.**—Hamilcar, the last of the Punic generals who fought in the war for Sicily, bore such a hatred toward Rome that he longed to humble her. Although Carthage was still rich and powerful, her merchants cared more for trade than for avenging their honor, and so they would not provide an army. Hamilcar, therefore, undertook to conquer Spain, where both Rome and Carthage had settlements, and there to secure men and money for making war upon Rome. Before he could accomplish his purpose he fell in battle. But he left a son, Hannibal, who in time carried out his wishes.

Hannibal's oath

54. **Hannibal and War with Rome.**—When Hannibal was only nine years old, his father had taken him to the altar of the great god of Carthage, where the boy swore always to hate Rome and to do everything in his power to injure her. Hannibal never forgot his oath; and when, at the age of twenty-eight, he was put in command of the Carthaginian army in Spain, he began to make good his word. By attacking Saguntum, a city on the Spanish coast, which was an ally of Rome, he provoked a declaration of war (218 B. C.); but before the Roman fleet could reach Saguntum, Hannibal was far on his way toward Italy. By the route he had chosen, Rome was eleven hundred miles away—a distance greater than that between New York and Chicago.

HANNIBAL

War with Rome

55. **Hannibal Crosses the Alps.**—We need not follow in detail this long war. But let us give our attention to the famous passage of the Alps and to one or two incidents

in the many years of campaigns and battles. We can then see what a wonderful man Hannibal was, and how great a thing it was for the Romans to defeat him.

Hannibal's army

Having crossed the Pyrenees and forded the Rhone, he began late in October the ascent of the Alps, with something like fifty thousand men and fifty-eight elephants. These elephants were used for a sort of heavy cavalry, their immense size frightening the foe and breaking his ranks.

A trying time for Hannibal

To cross the Alps was a gigantic undertaking, and put to severe test his courage and skill as a general. The very first day the army was attacked by hostile mountain tribes from the heights above. They hurled javelins and rolled great masses of rocks upon Hannibal's troops. The pathway was narrow and the mountains were steep and slippery. Hundreds of men and horses lost their footing and fell thousands of feet to their death on the rocks below. It looked as if the whole army might be destroyed. But Hannibal was equal to the situation. Having learned that the mountaineers did not keep watch during the night, he sent after dark a body of troops to occupy the position which the enemy had held during the day. When the natives appeared on the next morning, they were quickly driven off, and the way was left open for the entire army to pass on in safety.

HANNIBAL AND HIS ARMY CROSSING THE ALPS

The false guides

Four or five days later another tribe of mountaineers, carrying branches in their hands in token of peace, offered to act as guides for Hannibal. But leading his army into a narrow defile, they fell upon it with savage fury. It was only after a hard fight that he was able to drive off his foes.

More trouble for the army

On reaching the summit, Hannibal found the descent to be even harder than the climbing had been. The mountains were steeper to the south and the pathway more dangerous. At one point an avalanche blocked the way, and it required three days to cut a pathway wide enough for the elephants to pass.

Intense suffering of men and beasts

When, fifteen days after beginning the ascent, the whole army reached the plain below, twenty thousand men had been lost; and the survivors, ragged, weak, and worn, looked like walking skeletons. Many horses also had died, and those still alive were so weak that they could hardly stand. Only the strongest of men and of beasts had been able to endure the intense suffering from cold and hunger, as well as from the blinding snowstorms and the fierce attacks of the hostile tribes.

The great Hannibal

Yet during all this period of trial and hardship, Hannibal never lost courage. Fearless and tireless in action, cool and steady in the face of danger, he pressed rapidly onward. Many nights he slept on the bare earth with no covering but his long cloak. All such hardships he shared with his men, and this gained their lasting goodwill and friendship. They were always ready to follow wherever he might lead. They trusted him as a man; they idolized him as a general; and his perfect command over them made them wellnigh invincible in battle. He

was one of the greatest generals of all times, as the Romans were soon to find out.

56. The War Long and Terrible.—In the terrible war which he carried into the heart of Italy, and even to the very gates of Rome, he showed wonderful ability, sometimes almost destroying an entire army at one blow, and at other times getting away from the enemy when they thought they had entrapped him.

Hannibal catches his enemy in a trap

The battle of Trasimene is a good example of his skill in battle. Trasimene is a lake in Etruria, about one hundred miles from Rome. Close by its northern shore ran a road along which the Roman army would naturally pass. At two points in this road high mountains came so close to the shore that only narrow passes were left. Between these two passes the land broadened into a plain with mountains on one side and water on the other. By closing the two passes a trap could be made, from which escape would be very difficult for those once caught. Hannibal made ready the trap. He concealed a strong body of men near each pass in order to close it up when once the enemy had entered. Then he hid the rest of the army in the woods and underbrush covering the mountain sides. The soldiers were to attack the Roman army as soon as it was penned in.

A thick fog

On the morning of the battle a thick fog helped to keep Hannibal's army more completely out of sight. Hannibal waited patiently until the Roman legions were well inside the trap. Then from all sides his men fell upon them. The slaughter was terrible. The Roman army was almost totally destroyed.

His genius again flashed out in the ruse of the oxen.

The ruse of the oxen

An able Roman general had so completely surrounded Hannibal's army, which was encamped in a valley not far from the city of Capua, that it seemed impossible for him to escape. But he was too shrewd to be caught. At night he ordered his men to tie burning fagots to the horns of two thousand oxen and drive them up the mountain side. When the Romans saw the mass of moving lights, they supposed it was the Carthaginian army; so they climbed the mountains to prevent their escape. Then the wily Hannibal calmly marched through the pass which the Romans had left unguarded.

Hannibal the victor in every battle

Thus for fifteen years the terrible war went on. In the first three of these years four pitched battles were fought, in every one of which Hannibal was the victor. Even when the Roman army greatly outnumbered his own, it was no match for him. During the rest of the time the two armies never came face to face in open fight, but Hannibal plundered and terrified the people and ravaged the country until vast stretches lay waste and barren. Great was the distress and suffering in Italy, as you can well imagine.

The Senate and the Roman people brave

At one time Hannibal marched his army right to Rome itself, and threatened to capture that very centre of the nation. But at no time during this distressing war did the great ruling body, the Senate, waver in its firm and unyielding purpose to carry on the war. Its members were unselfish and patriotic, and the Roman people, upon whom the losses fell so heavily, stood back of them in this resolve not to give up. They were fighting for their homes and their country; and to these sturdy, patient, nation-loving men, death itself was more welcome than defeat.

Rome's allies faithful to her

It is not surprising that Hannibal could not conquer such a people. His task might have been easier if he had been able to get the help he expected from Rome's allies. But very few of them deserted Rome, and those really because they were forced to do so. They were bound

A ROMAN SEAPORT, SHIPS OF WAR AND OTHER CRAFT

to Rome by ties of race and of religion, and they could not hope for nearly so good a government from these Africans as that which they already had under Roman law and order.

57. **Rome Crushes the Power of Carthage.**—Finally when the Romans carried the war into Africa, Hannibal had to leave Italy in order to defend Carthage. On the plains of Zama, not far from Carthage, a battle was fought between Hannibal and the Roman commander Scipio (202 B. C.), which not only ended the war but crushed forever the power of Carthage in the ancient world.

Some years later Hannibal died in exile. About fifty years after the battle of Zama the Romans burned Carthage to the ground.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Rome and Carthage came to be great rivals. 2. In the first war between them Carthage met with severe defeat. 3. Hannibal was wonderful in his power over men and in his skill as a general. 4. In the terrible and distressing war both the Senate and the Roman people were brave, unselfish, and patriotic. 5. The war ended in the defeat of Carthage, and about fifty years later Rome burned Carthage to the ground.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How did there come to be war between Rome and Carthage?
2. What was Hannibal's oath, and how did he begin to make good his word?
3. Imagine yourself with him when he crossed the Alps and tell about your experiences. At this time how did Hannibal show his greatness?
4. What was the ruse of the oxen?
5. How do you explain the fact that Hannibal was the victor in every battle?
6. Explain why Hannibal could not conquer Rome.
7. Why were Rome's allies faithful to her?
8. What became of Carthage? What became of Hannibal?
9. Locate on the map all countries and cities mentioned in the text.

CHAPTER VIII

THE ROMANS IN THE WEST

58. The Romans Extend Their Conquests.—After bringing under her rule Italy and Carthage, Rome began to push out her borders in all directions. Just as Alexander the Great had conquered Egypt and the Persian Empire, and had prepared for the spread of Greek ideas

and ways of living, so the Roman nation after the conquest of Carthage reached out into the lands lying all about the Mediterranean Sea, and made ready the path for the Roman customs to travel.

We should like to watch Rome as she brings under her rule Egypt, Greece, and other countries in the East, but we must keep our minds mostly upon that part of the life story of the Romans which helps to explain how the great things they worked out came to be a part of our American life.

59. The Romans in the West.—Let us, then, follow them as they push their way into the country that bordered Italy on the north-west, which they called Gaul, and then on across the English Channel to the island of Britain. We must needs learn something also of the early struggles with the Germans. We shall then see more clearly how Roman customs and ideas grew to be a part of those of England, France, and Germany, and shall understand how it was that the men who came to America from these countries brought with them much that had been taught by the Romans.

JULIUS CÆSAR

60. Cæsar and the Germans.—Their first advance was northward into Gaul, and this caused their first conflict with the Germans. Julius Cæsar, who was the greatest of all the Roman generals, led this advance. But he had not gone far before he found that he had to reckon with a man far more dangerous than any Gallic leader. This man was Ariovistus, a German king. Some years before, this giant king had

The Germans in Gaul

led an army out of the forests of Germany across the Rhine. Invited by two of the Gallic tribes, he had come to fight for them against another tribe. After helping to conquer their foes, he and his victorious followers proceeded to take into their own hands the leadership of all Gaul.

Ariovistus

The growing power of this German king was a great obstacle to Cæsar, who decided to get rid of him. He therefore at once made plans to secure food supplies for his army, and took up the march against Ariovistus.

Panic seizes the Romans

It was not long before the natives and traders of Gaul began to bring in reports of the huge size, the fierce eyes, the wonderful bravery, and the great number of these fearless German warriors, who for fourteen years had not come under the shelter of a roof. The Roman soldiers were seized with panic. Some of them wept. Many made their wills. Others begged that they might go back to their homes, although they insisted, in their shame at seeming to fear men, that it was only the trackless forests of which they were afraid.

Cæsar defeats Ariovistus

But Cæsar did not hesitate in his purpose. He was more than willing to measure his well-drilled legions against the German forces. Soon a battle was fought, and the Germans were badly defeated. They fled to the Rhine, Ariovistus with the rest. Some of them got away in boats, some swam across, but most of them perished.

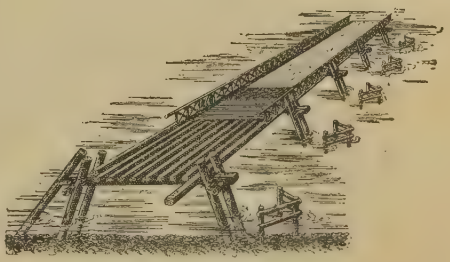
Cæsar's bridge across the Rhine

From this first meeting with the Germans, Cæsar learned a lesson of great value. He had tested the fighting ability of the huge, fierce warriors, and had come into a wholesome respect for their fighting powers. He also knew that there were vast hordes of them in the German

forest. In order that he might be able to advance with his army swiftly into their territory, he made use of the Roman skill to build, in what seemed to the Germans a miraculously short time, a huge bridge over the Rhine.

55. Cæsar Invades Britain.—After some three years of warring with the Gauls, Cæsar decided to invade Britain (55 B. C.). This was because the Celts of Britain were kinsmen by race of those in Gaul, and not only sent them help, but furnished them an easy refuge across the Channel when hard pressed by the Romans. So the Roman conquest of Gaul was not secure unless the Britons were conquered and curbed as well. Doubtless also Cæsar wished to obtain more booty and glory for himself and Rome.

Reasons for the invasion



CÆSAR'S BRIDGE OVER THE RHINE (SHOWING CONSTRUCTION)

On this first expedition he crossed the English Channel in three hundred small vessels, and with an army of from eight thousand to ten thousand men. Approaching the coast of Britain near the spot where Dover is now, he found the shore covered with the enemy's forces, whose chariots moved along the shore as fast as his galleys sailed through the water. Although the natives fought bravely to prevent him from landing, the well-drilled Romans succeeded in driving them away. But the Britons, although they retreated inland for safety at this time, returned later to annoy the invaders. On the water there was trouble also, for a storm had injured the Roman fleet.

The first invasion

This danger was repaired, and after a stay of only three weeks, Cæsar sailed back to Gaul.

The second invasion

Next spring he again invaded Britain, this time with eight hundred vessels, and with a force of twenty thousand to twenty-five thousand foot soldiers and two thou-

A ROMAN GENERAL ADDRESSING HIS TROOPS

sand horsemen. On this occasion he landed unopposed, pitched his camp on the sea-shore, and advanced inland. Cassivelaunus (Caswallon), a Celtic chief and the leader of the Britons, instead of fighting a battle, withdrew into the forests and marshes. Cæsar's troops, following, were attacked in the rear by other chiefs of Britain whose land had been crossed. Still other Britons attacked his camp on the sea-coast. Meanwhile a storm injured the Roman fleet. Cæsar by remaining longer would have run the risk of being detained till his army was thinned or cut to pieces by these assaults. As the gain was not worth

ROMAN BATHS AT BATH, ENGLAND, AS THEY LOOK TO-DAY

the danger, he made peace with the natives and again sailed back to Gaul after a stay of sixty days. His only

booty was some slaves. He had done nothing but alarm the Britons and give them a sense of Roman power.

What Cæsar did

62. **The Romans Conquer Britain.**—It was Cæsar's last visit to this island. Indeed we must pass over nearly a century before we find the Romans again entering Britain. But if we take this long look ahead, we shall see that they then conquered all but the northern part, brought it under Roman rule, and stayed three and a half centuries, building many cities and roads. This period of Roman occupation in Britain is longer than the English occupation of America has been.

The cities were centres of Roman life, where luxurious villas, baths, and amphitheatres helped to make life agreeable for the officers and garrisons stationed there, and for the families of merchants and traders. London, York, Lincoln, and Chester still contain parts of the old Roman walls built during those years. Some of the best highways that are now in use in England have for their foundations the old Roman roads. Four of them centred at London and three at Chester.

Cæsar's daring deed

63. **An Uprising of Gallic Tribes.**—Coming back to a period two years after the Romans entered Britain the second time, we find that many of the tribes of Gaul had risen to throw off the Roman yoke. These Gallic tribes were already well advanced in the arts of living and bitterly opposed Roman rule in Gaul. A brave young general, Vercingetorix, was their leader. Before the uprising had reached its full strength, Cæsar, the Roman ruler of Gaul, suddenly appeared. News of the uprising had reached him in Italy, where he was busy with affairs of state. Although it was the middle of winter,

with a small escort of cavalry he had hastened through the heart of the enemy's country to put himself at the head of his troops. Such a daring deed none but a man of heroic nature would ever attempt.

The plan of Vercingetorix

But even after reaching his army, Cæsar faced a dangerous situation, as we shall soon see. Vercingetorix was a brave and able leader. He knew that, in open battle, the well-trained Roman legions would be certain to defeat his troops. So he decided to adopt a kind of guerilla, or irregular, warfare. His plan was, by burning the towns and villages and laying waste the land, to starve Cæsar's army out of Gaul. It worked well for a time Wherever Cæsar marched he found the country deserted and saw the smoke of burning villages. More than twenty towns were burned in a single day.

LIGHT-ARMED SOLDIER

Trying days for the Romans

But the people of Bourges were so proud of their prosperous city that they could not bear to see it destroyed, and flatly refused to burn it. Cæsar made an attack upon it, and for weeks it stubbornly held out. The Roman soldiers suffered severely from cold. In his efforts to cut them off from food, Vercingetorix attacked them again and again, and was so successful that at times they were without bread for days together. But Cæsar persisted until he had captured the city. Then, in order to make a terrible object-lesson for the rest of Gaul, he massacred all its inhabitants.

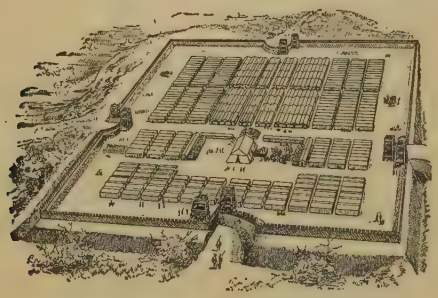
Cæsar discouraged

A little later, when Cæsar attacked Vercingetorix at the town of Gergovia, he was repulsed with heavy loss.

The outlook for bringing Gaul again under Roman control was dreary. Even Cæsar was discouraged. To meet the desperate situation he marched in the direction of Germany, and there enrolled in his army a strong force of German cavalry.

Cæsar wins a victory

64. Cæsar Defeats Vercingetorix.—In the meantime the Gauls, greatly encouraged by the way things were going, determined to wage war on a larger scale than before. Vercingetorix was to fortify Alesia (about thirty miles north-west of the present Dijon), and, avoiding open battle, was to give Cæsar all the trouble possible while the Roman army was on its march to that city.



A ROMAN CAMP

But his men were so eager to fight that Vercingetorix could not control them. He was forced, therefore, into an open battle with the Romans, now greatly aided by the German cavalry, and met with a severe defeat.

A trying siege

Then he retreated to Alesia and there awaited Cæsar. The siege that followed was a trying one—for Cæsar, for the people of the city, and for Vercingetorix. There were many weeks of untold suffering. At last when the Gallic soldiers and the people of Alesia were almost without food, Vercingetorix sent out into the open plain between the city and the Roman army all who were unable to fight—the women and children, the sick and the aged. He hoped Cæsar would take them prisoners and give them food. But Cæsar had no food for his own men. And so

before the very eyes of fathers, husbands, and friends, these helpless men, women, and children died in the agonies of hunger.

The fate of Vercingetorix

At last after desperate fighting the Gauls surrendered, and Vercingetorix, dressed in full armor, rode proudly into the presence of Cæsar. Then, giving up his arms and his steed, he sat down in silence at the feet of his conqueror. Five years later this daring leader of a lost cause was led in a triumphal procession through the streets of Rome; and while his conqueror was offering solemn thanks to the gods at the summit of the Capitol, he was beheaded at its foot for the part he had taken in an uprising of his countrymen against Roman rule in Gaul. For the French, Vercingetorix is a national hero to-day.

ROMAN STANDARDS

The Romans more than victorious warriors

65. The Romans Successful Teachers.—In this brief account of Cæsar's invasions of Gaul and Britain, and of his war with Ariovistus, we get little more than a few impressions of the way in which he extended Roman power in the West. What we wish to remember, however, is not so much the battles he fought, or the extent of his conquests over the Gauls, the Germans, and the Britons, as the fact that, like Alexander the Great, he was making ready for the spread of Roman thought, Roman customs, and Roman ways of living. The Romans were more than victorious warriors. They were also successful teachers of

They were also successful teachers

the countries they ruled with their wise laws. The very barbarians who fought them knew and envied their superiority, copied their manners, tried to live like them, bought their wares, were glad to come under a rule of law like theirs, and by degrees became civilized like themselves.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. After the conquest of Carthage the Roman nation reached out into the lands lying all about the Mediterranean Sea and made ready the path for Roman customs to travel. 2. Since Roman customs and ideas grew to be a part of those of England, France, and Germany, the men who later came to America from these countries brought with them much that had been taught them by the Romans. 3. What we wish to remember, then, is not so much the battles Cæsar fought, or the extent of his conquests over the Gauls, the Germans, and the Britons, as the fact that, like Alexander the Great, he was making ready for the spread of Roman thought, Roman customs, and Roman ways of living.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How far did the Romans extend their conquests? Point out as many as you know of the countries they conquered.

2. What did Cæsar do in Gaul and in Britain?

3. Who was Ariovistus? How did Cæsar get aid from the Germans later?

4. Why did Cæsar invade Britain, and with what results?

5. Tell all you can of Roman life in Britain during the three and a half centuries of Roman rule there?

6. Who was Vercingetorix? What did he try to do? What became of him?

7. What is meant by saying that the Romans were not only successful warriors but also successful teachers?

8. Are you using your map in the preparation of every lesson?

CHAPTER IX

ROME THE CAPITAL OF AN EMPIRE

66. The Vast Empire and Its Capital.—In time the Romans brought under their control most of the civilized world and made of it one great state, or empire, as it was called later. In Europe this included all of Italy, Greece, Spain, France (Gaul), and what is now England, as well as parts of Germany, of Austria-Hungary, of the Balkan states, and of the Turkish Empire. In general, we may say that all of Europe lying south of the Danube and west of the Rhine came to be a part of the Roman Empire. **The Roman Empire**

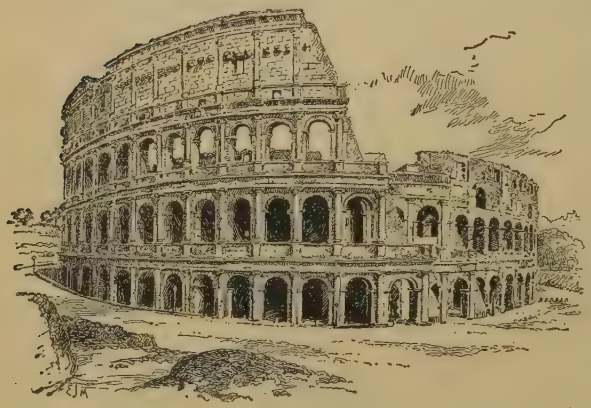
Such was its vast extent. Its centre and capital was Rome, which at the time when Augustus was Emperor probably contained not far from a million and a half people, or something like as many as Philadelphia contains now. An imaginary visit to the city in the days of its imperial greatness will give us a glimpse of its magnificence. **The capital**

A BIT OF ANCIENT WALL OF ROME

Passing through its narrow, winding streets we soon find ourselves gazing in admiration at massive public buildings which for hundreds of years played a large part in the life of the rich and the poor. Since in the days of the empire the Romans made pleasure-seeking one of their chief aims, let us first go to the principal centres of amuse-

ment—the theatre, the amphitheatre, the circus, and the bath—and see what takes place there.

67. The Theatre.—Although the theatre furnished a sort of amusement for great numbers of the lower classes, it did not reach such a position of dignity and influence as it had held at Athens. We may therefore pass it by with the simple statement that the plays were not, as a rule, such as people of fine feeling and pure thought would care to witness.



THE COLISEUM, ROME

68. The Coliseum.—But the forms of amusement which appealed to all sorts and conditions of men in Rome were the gladiatorial show and the chariot races. The gladiatorial contests were held in the amphitheatres, the largest and greatest of which was the Coliseum. Its wonderful ruins can still be seen. It covered nearly six acres, and seated eighty-seven thousand men and women, who took a keen delight in the cruel spectacles they witnessed within its walls.

The gladiators and the contests

We can imagine the vast throng seated and eager for the exciting events of the day. First comes a procession, which includes a parade of chariots. Then follow the gladiators themselves. Armed with swords and spears, they march around the vast arena before they engage in

deadly combat with one another or with wild beasts. Sometimes they fight in pairs and sometimes in large numbers. At other times the bloody duel is between two animals much unlike, as a lion and a bear, a wild boar and an elephant, or a bull and a tiger.

Brutal scenes

The more the people saw of these brutal scenes the more they craved such entertainment. In one case the contests lasted for one hundred and twenty-three days, and during these days some thousands of animals were killed and ten thousand gladiators fought.

FIGHTING GLADIATOR

69. The Circus Maximus.—Rivalling the amphitheatre in excitement and interest was the circus, where the chariot races were held. The largest one in Rome was the Circus Maximus, a structure of such mammoth size that it would seat four hundred thousand spectators.

The chariot races

Four and sometimes six chariots took part in a race. Each was drawn by a number of horses, from four to ten abreast, the driver standing erect, dressed in a short colored tunic. The colors used for the tunics were red, white, green, and blue. Each driver's color was worn also by those among the on-lookers who hoped to see him win. Thus the spectators were divided into four parties. Each man's interest centred in the success of his chosen color. Seven times around the course sped the charioteers, covering a distance of about four miles. The turns were so sharp that, when the horses were racing at full speed, chariots were sometimes upset or smashed and their drivers maimed or killed. Such accidents made the excitement all the keener. The clatter of the chariots, the cries

A CHARIOT RACE

of the drivers, and the wild shouts of the thousands of spectators made a scene which one who witnessed it could never forget.

Successful charioteers

Some of the most successful charioteers, who were either freedmen or slaves, made large fortunes. It is said that one of these had earned sixty thousand dollars by the time he was twenty-one years old, and that still another left his son more than one million four hundred thousand dollars.

70. **The Baths.**—Another way in which the rich sought amusement was in the public baths. These buildings were like huge and luxurious club-houses. Not only could men take hot, cold, swimming, or steam baths, but they could spend their time pleasantly in other ways. For attached to the high-class baths were gymnasiums, lounging, and resting rooms adorned with statues and pictures, libraries, and even gardens where visitors could meet for walks and conversation. In the same building were

also shops and restaurants. The baths were usually crowded. Sometimes men spent the entire day there. "Two baths a day make two days," they said, and they often took many in the course of a day to increase the joy of living.

71. **The Palace and the Villa.**—Still more amazing in its dazzling splendor was the golden house of Nero. It covered an area of a square mile; its walls glittered with gold, gems, and pearls; and it contained thousands of graceful columns and beautiful wall paintings and statues. **The golden house of Nero**

Although this wonderful palace had no rival in Rome, yet many wealthy Romans owned luxurious villas. Like the golden house of Nero, they were ornamented with marble columns, beautiful pictures, urns richly carved, and vases of marble, bronze, silver, and gold. Far different were such gorgeous dwellings from the one-room cabins in the early days of simple living in Rome. **The luxurious villas**

72. **The People of Rome.**—These magnificent buildings and this grandeur of living point to the untold wealth which the Romans had acquired through their conquests. From the same sources also they had acquired great numbers of slaves. Some of these had been captured in war, and many others had been brought to Rome through her extensive slave trade. It is believed that after the conquest of Gaul by Cæsar, slaves made nearly one-half of the population of Rome. **Slaves in Rome**

What was true of Rome was true in greater or less degree of other parts of Italy. Millions of slaves crowded the peninsula. They were very cheap. It is said that at the close of a successful war in the East the Roman commander sold his captives for an average price of eighty **Slaves in Italy**

cents a head. The man was poor who did not own at least three or four slaves, and it was not uncommon for a rich land-owner to own hundreds. He employed cheap slave labor to cultivate his huge estate, formed by uniting the many small farms which his wealth made it easy for him to buy. Thus he could raise grain at less cost than could the man who tilled his own farm. So the small farmers were driven out of business. They sold their land and flocked to Rome, where with their families they became a part of the idle rabble of the city. After a while these shiftless folk looked down upon labor as unworthy of freemen, and in time slaves came to be almost the only workers in Rome.

The idle rabble in Rome

SCENE AT THE VILLA OF A RICH ROMAN

Two classes of freemen

The freemen were mainly divided into two great classes —the very rich and the very poor. Both of these classes despised labor, and both spent their time in idleness. The luxury-loving rich enjoyed feasting and revelry; the loafing, beggarly rabble sought free bread and excitement.

How different were these Romans, who gave themselves up to idleness and amusement, from those plain, sturdy, self-reliant peasants of the early days! Then obedience to law and service to the state were the watchwords. At that time Rome was poor in money and goods, but rich in strong, brave men. Now she was wealthy in money, slaves, houses, and lands, but poor in character and manhood.

73. **The Senate.**—The same causes that corrupted the people corrupted the Senate also. During the struggle with Carthage this body had kept up the spirit of Rome. Now it was unfit to govern. At the time when Hannibal was waging war in Italy, most of the senators were strong and patriotic. Now the members of that body had become weak and corrupt. Hence the Senate failed, and victorious generals one by one strove to put themselves in control at Rome. For many years a series of struggles went on between rival leaders, the most prominent of whom were Marius, Sulla, Pompey, Crassus, and Julius Cæsar. Each professed a different aim, though the first four called themselves merely servants of the government. Cæsar openly made himself master of the government and the Senate yielded to him as its superior and head of the Roman world.

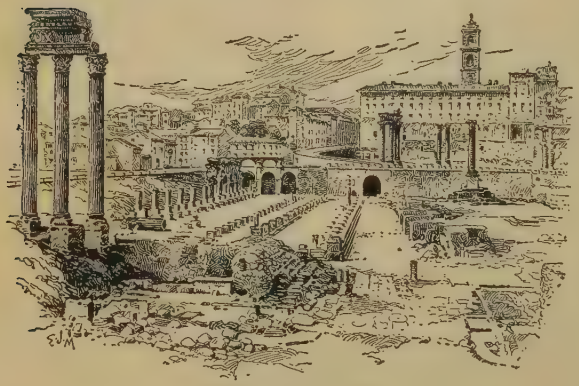
Rival leaders

74. **The Forum.**—"Rome," it was said, "was the centre of the world, and the Forum was the heart of Rome." In early times, when it was the only open square in Rome, it was used as a market and for holding the religious and state ceremonies.

Even in the time of Cæsar it was very small, not as large as the usual city square, and was crowded with statues

Statues, columns, and buildings

and columns erected in honor of distinguished men. Here stood many noble buildings. Among them were temples, halls of justice, and the curia, or senate house. In the Forum was the rostrum, or platform, from which orations were made to the people.



RUINS OF THE FORUM

The original Forum — there were now others — was small for the imperial business that had to be done there, and was, therefore, generally full of people. It was said that when a Roman was not at home he was in the Forum. In one part were to be found lawyers and brokers carrying on their business; another part was given up to money-lenders; in another were gathered the idle rabble; and in still another the nobles and senators met. Here, in fact, went on the stirring life of Rome. Here one could see men talking over the news of the day; orators making speeches to the people; on certain days, religious festivals and games; and even, at times, triumphal processions on their way to the Capitol.

The people in the Forum

Coveted honors

75. **A Roman Triumph.**—The desire nearest the heart of every Roman general, was that he might have a triumph; that is, that he might win a great victory for Rome, and as a reward be given a celebration by the city. If he should be fortunate enough to win this honor,

he would be a famous man all his life and statues of him would keep his glory alive after his death.

The victorious general and the triumph

As soon as a commander had conquered an enemy or won a province for Rome, he sent word to the Senate. They considered the matter and, if the victory was a satisfactory one, they decreed a public thanksgiving. As soon as the war was over, the general hastened to Rome. But he did not enter the city, for as soon as he should pass through the gates his command would be over, and he could not have a triumph unless he was still at the head of his army.

The Senate and the triumph

Outside the walls, in one of the temples, the Senate met him and heard his report. If it was decided to allow him a triumph the Senate voted a sum of money for the celebration. They also arranged that the general should retain his command within the city during the triumph.

ARCH OF TRAJAN, TIMGAD, NORTH AFRICA

Let us join an expectant throng who have gathered to view a triumph. They crowd the steps of the public buildings, jostle each other for standing-room, and fill the door-ways. Grandstands put up along the way are filled with eager on-lookers. Every one is gayly dressed. The temples are open and fragrant with flowers.

A crowd gathers to see the triumph

While we wait in the Via Sacra, the general is congratulating his soldiers and rewarding them for their services.

Entrance into city

We must have patience until he can get into his car and drive to the Triumphal Gate. Here he will be met by the magistrates and the Senate, who then turn about and head the gay procession.

Display of trophies

Behind the magistrates and the Senate come the trumpeters, followed by wagons loaded with the spoils of the war. All sorts of interesting trophies are displayed—models of the conquered cities, pictures of the newly acquired region and its rivers and mountains, jewels and works of art, embroidered cloths, gold and silver, and everything which may interest the people. Now come the flute-players, preceding the animals, white bulls or oxen with gilded horns, which are to be sacrificed, and the priests who are to perform this ceremony. If any strange animals have been captured, such as elephants, they come next, then the insignia of the enemy, and finally the captives themselves, whom the people look at with great curiosity, for sometimes they come from far-distant lands.

ARCH OF CONSTANTINE, ROME

The general and his body-guard

Now appear the victors in single file escorting the general in his glory. He is standing in his circular chariot drawn by four horses. His robe is of gold embroidery, covered with a flowered tunic, and he carries a laurel

bough in his right hand, and a sceptre in his left. On his head rests a laurel wreath. By his side are his little children or perhaps his closest friends. A slave, standing behind him, holds above his head a jewelled crown. His body-guard is composed of his grown-up sons, and prominent officials and citizens, all on horseback. Last of all come the infantry, with laurel adorning their spears, laughing and shouting and singing hymns to the gods as lustily as they choose.

End of the triumph

Reaching the Capitoline Hill, the procession begins the ascent. The chief captives are led aside into a prison and put to death. Then the sacrifices are offered, and the laurel wreath placed in the lap of Jupiter. Following this comes a great feast in the temple, in honor of the general; and at the close of the day, or of the two or three days, in case the triumph is so long, he goes to his home attended by a throng of citizens, with pipers and torch-bearers in the lead.

Purposes of the Roman roads

76. **The Roman Roads.**—The arch of triumph through which we have just seen the triumphal procession pass illustrates well the remarkable skill of the Romans in engineering. In fact they were not only the first to make architectural use and on a large scale of the arch and the dome, but were also masterful builders of bridges. They were great builders in other ways also. Among the most noted examples of their work were huge structures like the Coliseum, the Circus Maximus, the baths,

THE APPIAN WAY, A ROMAN ROAD

and the theatres. But the building in which the practical makers of an empire especially excelled was the structure of roads and aqueducts. As for roads, no other countries then had anything but dirt paths; but wherever the Romans conquered a district, they placed garrisons at important centres and connected them with each other and with Rome by well-built roads, so that the people of that time could truly say, "All roads lead to Rome." The heavy blocks of stone used in paving were so strong that long sections of the roads still exist to-day.

How the roads were used

These thoroughfares served the same purpose in the ancient world that railroads do to-day. They helped to keep Rome in close touch with all parts of her territory, and made it possible to move troops rapidly to points where they were needed. At intervals there were stations for relays of horses. In carrying important messages, horsemen would ride with desperate speed, hastily mounting a fresh horse at each station. In this way a letter or important news of any kind could be carried hundreds of miles in a single day. Wagons were also employed to transport state officials, as well as merchants, travellers, and their goods. The most famous of all the roads is called the Appian Way. This still exists and runs in a south-easterly direction to Brindisi on the eastern coast, three hundred miles from Rome.

The construction of the aqueducts

77. **Roman Aqueducts.**—Another striking example of the engineering ability of the Romans is their method of supplying Rome with water. They were not so fortunate as the Greeks in their water supply. The Greek cities were amply provided with pure water by

THE AQUEDUCT AT NIMES

numerous springs and good wells; but the water of the Tiber and of the city wells in Rome was not good to drink. So the Romans had to bring pure water from the hills at a distance. This they did by means of aqueducts, or artificial water channels. These the Romans constructed, as nearly as they could, in such a way as to have a gradual inclination downward from the place where the water entered the aqueduct to the place where it was delivered for use in Rome.

The aqueduct channel

In time there came to be fourteen of these magnificent structures which were built of stone. The channel itself was a trough of brick or stone lined with cement and covered over, and here the water ran in a steady stream, either through the trough or through pipes laid

there. When a hill interfered with its course a tunnel was made; but when a valley was to be crossed, the channel was supported on solid masonry or on arches of stone.

The distribution of water

The greater part of the greater number of aqueducts was underground. One or two of the longer ones were mainly above ground, but none were altogether without

CLAUDIAN AQUEDUCT ON THE ROMAN CAMPAGNA

underground parts. Reservoirs were built in the city for receiving and distributing enormous quantities of water which was needed for private houses, public baths, ponds, fountains, and so on. Each private house had a cistern to receive the water from the reservoir. Prominent even to-day in the landscape just outside of Rome are the ruins of the aqueducts through which water flowed into the city hundreds of years ago.

Buildings and works of art

78. **The Greeks Influence the Romans.**—Having taken a rapid survey of the imperial city, we may well note the fact that the Romans, in much of their building, came under Greek influence. This was true in their private

houses as well as in their temples, theatres, gymnasiums, and other buildings. They followed the Greek custom also of adorning their buildings with statues, paintings, urns, vases, and other things of beautiful design and workmanship. Lacking the artistic genius of the Greeks, the Romans never produced objects of such rare grace and beauty as those which adorned the Greek cities, especially such cities as Athens, Antioch, and Alexandria. But when they conquered Greece they brought back to Rome as a part of their immense booty, taken from Corinth and other cities, thousands of statues, bronzes, paintings, and other works of art.

The Romans preserve Greek art

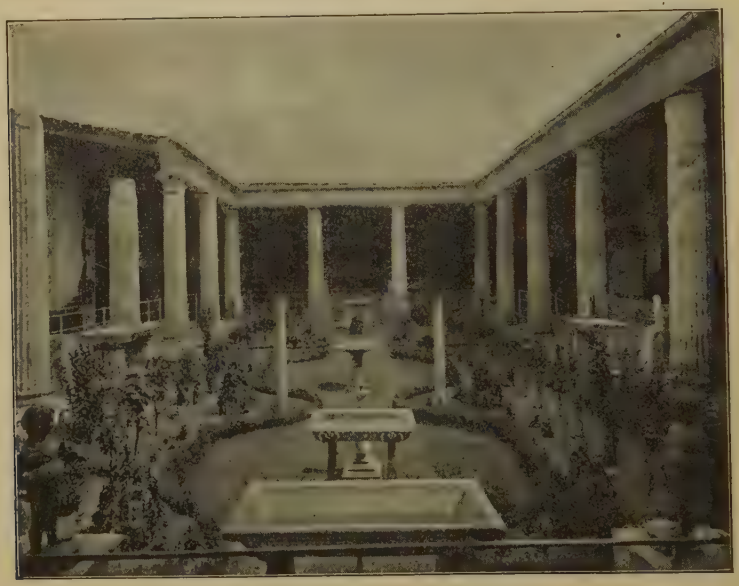
Such plunder of Greek cities was most unfortunate for Greece, but to us it seems more like the rescue of a great legacy which Greece had created and was unable to hold. The Romans appreciated what they could not create, and in beautifying and adorning their magnificent buildings and their luxurious palaces and villas they preserved the glory of Greek art and transmitted it to the world.

Influence of Greek literature

79. **Education and Books.**—Great as was the influence of Greek art upon the Romans, that of Greek literature was, perhaps, equally marked. In Rome it became the fashion for rich men to study and discuss Greek plays, Greek philosophy, and Greek poetry, and to have the best Greek books in their libraries. Many of these books came with booty after conquest, and many also from merchants and traders. After a time all men of even modest learning were expected to speak and write in Greek. In this way many Greek words crept into the Latin language, which, in turn, has passed them on to us.

Influence of Greek slaves and teachers

Closer even than their literature was the personal contact with the Greeks themselves. When Rome conquered Greece, thousands of the best educated men of that country were made slaves and brought to Rome. Many of



PERISTYLE OF THE HOUSE OF VETTIUS, POMPEII

them read to their masters from books written by Greek historians, poets, and philosophers, and large numbers came to be the teachers of Roman boys. Thus they did much to spread Greek ideas and ways of living among the Roman people. In fact, the Romans found so much that was new, strange, and beautiful in the life of the Greeks, that they wished their boys to learn the Greek language and literature. Hence these studies came to be a necessary part of the schooling of every well-taught boy.

Homer's "Iliad" and "Odyssey" were made regular text-books, and were studied not merely for language and literature, but also for geography, history, and religion.

Education of a Roman boy

Before this period of Greek influence the education of Roman boys was most practical. Up to the time when children were seven years old, they were trained at home by their mothers. Then the boys began going to school, but the girls remained at home to be further taught by their mothers. On their way to school, which opened before sunrise, the boys of well-to-do parents were attended, as in Athens, by slaves, called pedagogues ("child teachers"), who carried their books and writing material for them. Their teachers, who were either slaves or freedmen, taught the boys such things as would prepare them for the life of the citizen and the soldier. So they not only studied reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also learned swimming, riding, and throwing the javelin.

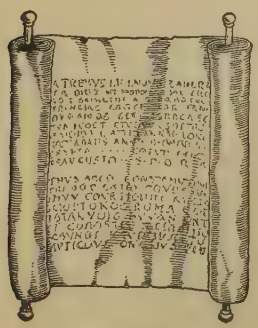
Roman literature

It was not until the time of Augustus that the Romans had much literature of their own. Then historians like Livy and Tacitus, and poets like Virgil, Ovid, and Horace, wrote books which helped to make the "Augustan Age" famous. Their works have come down to our own time. They are studied in our high-schools and colleges to-day, and are read with profit and pleasure by students of the ancient world.

Books of ancient times

The books used in those ancient times were not like ours; for we must remember that the people did not have paper as we know it, and that printing had not been invented. All the books had to be written by hand with thick black ink. Papyrus paper was used instead of our cotton or wood paper. This was made from the pith of

a reed-like plant which grew along the Nile River, in Egypt. The strips of papyrus were made from six to thirteen inches wide, and were glued together, end to end, so as to form as long a sheet as was needed for the book. The sheet might be ten feet, fifty feet, one hundred feet, or much longer, for its length depended upon the size of the book. This strip was rolled up and unrolled, so that instead of calling it a book we should properly speak of it as a roll. The writing was in fine, clear characters. It was in columns running with the width of the roll; that is, the roll when set on end was in a position to be read.



A ROMAN BOOK
PAPYRUS ROLL

The "volume"

This long sheet was fastened at each end to a rod of polished ivory or wood, generally ending in knobs. Around one of these rods the whole sheet was wound like a window-shade and tied with thongs. The roll formed a "volume," this word being derived from a Latin word meaning "to roll." Then a stiff label, bearing the title and the author's name, was tied to the knobs, and the book was ready for the bookseller or the library.

Booksellers and their books

The booksellers at first made their own copies of the books for sale, and kept assistants for more rapid production. These assistants were slaves or paid freedmen. Their work was often made easier by dictation, one person dictating for several scribes at once. The booksellers hung the titles of books on the door or on the pillars of their shops, and sold their books at moderate prices.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The Romans brought under their control most of the civilized world and made of it one great empire. 2. In the days of the empire the Romans made pleasure-seeking one of their chief aims, the principal centres of amusement being the theatre, the amphitheatre, the circus, and the bath. 3. It is believed that after the conquest of Gaul slaves made nearly one-half the population of Rome. 4. The freemen were mainly divided into the very rich and the very poor. 5. The Senate was now unfit to govern because the senators had become weak and corrupt. It finally yielded to Cæsar as its superior and head of the Roman world. 6. The Greeks, through their buildings, their works of art, and their literature, had large influence over the Romans. 7. In the time of Augustus the Romans themselves had historians and poets which helped to make the "Augustan Age" famous.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Point out on the map the countries in Europe that were included in the Roman Empire.
2. What was the Coliseum? The Circus Maximus?
3. Into what classes were the people of Rome divided?
4. In what way had the Senate become unfit to govern? Why?
5. What was the Forum?
6. What was the purpose of a Roman triumph?
7. What were the principal uses of the Roman roads?
8. In what ways did the Romans come under the influence of the Greeks? Explain in particular the influence of Greek slaves and teachers.
9. Tell what you can about the education of a Roman boy.
10. How did the books of ancient times differ from ours in the way they were made?

CHAPTER X

ROME AND CHRISTIANITY

Early Roman worship

80. Roman Religion.—In their religion, as in their art and literature, the Romans borrowed from the Greeks, but they thought of their gods in a different way. The early Romans, like the Greeks, worshipped spirits, which they believed to be all about them. These spirits dwelt in rivers, forests, fountains, and like places, and took an active part in the life of nature and of man. The Roman, however, did not think of his gods and goddesses as personal beings to be loved, but rather as forces to be feared.

Roman worship and the welfare of Rome

He was as practical and straightforward in his religion as he was in other matters. If he was true to the gods, he believed, they would be true to him; but he could not expect them to favor him and protect him from evil unless he duly honored them by proper worship and sacrifice. In their worship the Romans had deeply at heart the welfare of Rome. It was in their intense love of country that they showed real and deep religious feeling. We may almost say that their patriotism was their religion. Devotion and loyalty to Rome were devotion and loyalty to the gods of Rome.

Some Roman deities

One of the great Roman deities was Vesta, goddess of the hearth. In early Roman days the hearth was the centre of the house, and the family in gathering about it for meals made each meal an act of worship. In the temple of Vesta at Rome, a fire was kept continually burning, as if the whole people were one great family. A spark of fire, which we can now strike so easily, was to

them a sacred thing. Every family worshipped also the Lares, which were ancestral spirits, and the Penates, which were gods of the household. Other important Roman deities were Jupiter, the supreme ruler of the earth and sky; Juno, his wife; Pluto, the god of the underworld; Neptune, the god of the sea; Venus, the goddess of love and beauty; and Minerva, the goddess of wisdom.

JUNO

81. The Emperor Augustus and His Worship as a God.—Although, as noted elsewhere, Julius Cæsar by his army had made himself master of Rome, he could not protect himself from the revenge of the senators, and several of their party murdered him. For a number of years after his death, there were many wars among the various factions at Rome. But at last (31 B. C.) Cæsar's grandnephew, who was afterward called Augustus, triumphed over all his rivals and established one-man rule forever in Rome. He was called emperor (commander-in-chief) and came to be worshipped as a god. His rule was wise, and he gave the Roman world such order, peace, and prosperity as it had never had before.

One-man rule in Rome

82. The Beginning of Christianity.—It was during his reign of peace throughout the Roman world that Jesus was born in Bethlehem. This was a quiet little town in the Roman province of Judæa. A province was a conquered country outside of Italy. At the time when Jesus was crucified at Jerusalem, Tiberius was the Roman em-

Jesus born in Bethlehem

20° Longitude West 10° from Greenwich 0°
10° Longitude 20° East from 30° Greenwich 40°
50°
30°
20°
10°
0°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BRITAIN
TRINOVANTES
KENT
GERMANY
SARMATIA
GALLIA
BELGICA
GALLIA LUGDUNENSIS
RHENUS R.
VINDELICORUM
RHAETIA
NORICUM
PANNONIA
AQUITANIA
GALLIA NARBONENSIS
GERMANIA
HISPANIA TARRACONENSIS
ILLYRIA BARBARA
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
LUSITANIA
CORSICA
ITALY
MOESIA
THRACE
BITHYNIA
PONTUS
ILLYRIA GRAECA
MACEDONIA
ARMENIA MINOR
SARDINIA
MYSIA
PHRYGIA
GALATIA
CAPPADOCIA
BAETICA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
LYDIA
LYCAONIA
CILICIA
SICILY
SYRIA
MAURETANIA
NUMIDIA
AFRICA
RHODES
CRETE
CYPRUS
JUDEA
SYRIA
CYRENAICA
MARMARICA
EGYPT
ARABIA
RED SEA
THE ROMAN EMPIRE
AT THE
Beginning of the Christian Era
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
L.L. BOATES ENG.CO., N.Y.

peror and Pontius Pilate was the governor sent out by Rome to the province of Judæa.

Paul and the early Christians

The followers of Jesus Christ were called Christians, and one of the most noted of the early Christians was the Apostle Paul. He was a Jew with a Greek education, born in Tarsus (a city of Asia Minor), and was a Roman citizen. You may remember that when Paul was brought to trial in Judæa, he claimed that as a Roman citizen it was his right to appeal to Rome for a special trial. To Rome, then, he was sent in chains as a prisoner; and at Rome he was later put to death because he was a Christian.

83. The Persecution of the Christians.—Paul was not alone in suffering death on account of his religious faith. Many of the early Christians were killed, and all were treated as public enemies. This seems cruel to us, but the Romans thought they had good reasons for getting rid of men and women whom they deemed dangerous.

The Christians hold religious services in secret

One reason was that the Christians held their religious services in secret. The Romans did not like this, because they believed the Christians were doing evil things which they did not wish to have made known. The Romans also believed that the Christians had formed secret organizations. But secret organizations were forbidden by the government, for it was thought that they might plot against the state. Hence the Christians were punished as public enemies.

The Christians refuse to worship the emperors

Moreover, the Christians would not take part in the worship of the emperors. "There is but one God," they declared, "and we will worship Him alone. We cannot worship the emperors, nor can we worship any of the Roman gods." When we remember that the Ro-

mans honestly believed that unless the gods were duly honored and worshipped the empire would be destroyed, and that denying the divinity of the emperor was the same as denying his right to reign, we can easily see why they regarded the Christians as dangerous to the state.

Some refuse to join the army

The Romans had no doubt, therefore, that the Christians were public enemies. But many of the Christians gave further proof of their disloyalty, as the Romans thought, by refusing to join the army. "It is wrong to fight," said some Christians. "You are unwilling to defend and protect your country," was the angry retort of the Romans.

Cruel treatment of the Christians

Thus we see that the Romans really thought that the Christians were dangerous to the state. So they put them to death, torturing them in all sorts of cruel and shocking ways. Some were tied up in the skins of animals and tossed into the arena to be torn to pieces by hungry wild beasts. On one occasion the Emperor Nero opened his gardens to the people, and the torches he used to light up the gay scene at night were the burning bodies of Christians, which had been covered with tar and fastened to crosses.

NERO

Saint Peter and Saint Paul

Among those who suffered death under the Emperor Nero were Saint Paul and Saint Peter, both of whom are said to have been put to death on the same day. Paul, being a Roman citizen, was killed by a sword, and Peter was crucified on a spot near Nero's gardens. A beautiful

church, called St. Paul's, outside the walls of Rome, is supposed to mark the spot where Paul died; and you perhaps know that St. Peter's Church in Rome is a very great and very grand church, probably the most famous in the world.

What the Catacombs are

84. **The Catacombs.**—During this time of persecution in Rome the Christians had to worship in secret places. The most noted of these were the Catacombs. They are underground passages two and one-half to five feet broad and eight feet high, stretching for about three miles under that part of the city which lies on the west bank of the Tiber. The passages branch off in different directions and are cut one under another, making at least three different levels, or "stories," so that there is a perfect labyrinth of them. Here in stone niches hewn in the rock that formed the side of the passages were buried the early Christians. Sometimes as many as eight niches were cut one above the other. Near the little chambers where rested the bodies of martyrs, their friends liked to be buried. Funeral services also were held in these chambers, by the light of the old Roman lamps.

A PORTION OF A WALL IN THE CATACOMBS, ROME

When the Catacombs were begun, there was no need of secrecy about them, for the Roman always respected burial places. It was only after the persecutions that the usual doors were closed and entrance was made in secret ways.

Slow progress of Christianity

The fact that it is thought that from one to six million bodies were buried in the Catacombs shows in what numbers people had adopted the Christian faith. In its early days the progress of Christianity had been slow and unnoticed. The number of Christians was small, and consisted mostly of workingmen and slaves coming from the lowest classes of society and attracting but little notice from those in high places.

Spread of the Christian faith

When it first came to the attention of the great, they tried to crush it. But with the weakening of Roman character, which we have observed, the Roman nation became weaker and weaker, for a strong and good nation is made only of strong and good men. The belief in the power of Jupiter and the other gods was dying out. This left room for the Christian faith to spread more and more rapidly until, by the middle of the fourth century, it had largely taken the place of the old worship.

85. The Emperor Constantine and Christianity.— Early in the fourth century the Emperor Constantine had allowed the Christians to worship freely. Later he went still further and made Christianity the national religion (325 A. D.), and was himself baptized as a Christian. You will remember the name of this man, who was the first Christian Emperor, if you keep in mind that it was for him that Constantinople was named. Its old name was Byzantium; but he rebuilt this ancient Greek city and made it, instead of Rome, the capital of the empire.

CONSTANTINE

86. Things We Have Learned from the Greeks and the Romans.—From the foregoing chapters it is evident that the genius of the Romans was very different from that of the Greeks. For example, both were great builders, but the buildings of the Greeks were graceful and beautiful, because the Greeks were artistic, while those of the Romans were massive and imposing, because the Romans were practical.

The Greeks artistic and the Romans practical

The Greeks were as patriotic as the Romans; but their patriotism was narrowed to their own little city-states. Only in the presence of an overwhelming danger like the Persian invasions, which threatened to bring disaster on all alike, could they sink their jealousies for the time and join one another in the common cause. The danger over, they fell back at once into their old-time habits of caring for none but their own community.

Greek patriotism narrow

To the Romans is due the great work of building up the nation. This they were able to do because they had a broader patriotism than the Greeks; that is, they had interests in common with a wider circle of people than those living close beside them. They also had the power to organize one great state by binding together many tribes, peoples, and countries.

Roman patriotism broad

Both systems have been of priceless worth to men. The Athenians taught the world the great value of democracy, which meant giving to every free man a share in the government by allowing him a part in making the laws. The Romans taught the great value of law, order, and organization. By means of these they established their empire.

Both systems of priceless value to the world

Thus did the Greeks and Romans find out ways of

American beginnings in Greece and Rome

living and of doing things that are a valuable part of American life to-day. We still use some of their forms of law and government; we still imitate their architecture and their engineering; we still enjoy their works of art in our museums, our public buildings, our schools, and our homes; and we still study in our high-schools and colleges, as well as read by our firesides, books written by their poets, their historians, and their philosophers.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. From the stand-point of the Romans, devotion and loyalty to Rome were devotion and loyalty to the gods of Rome. 2. During the peaceful rule of the Emperor Augustus, Jesus was born in Bethlehem. 3. The Romans bitterly persecuted the Christians because, as the Romans declared, the Christians were dangerous to the state. 4. But later the Christian faith spread rapidly until the Emperor Constantine made Christianity the national religion. 5. The Greeks were artistic and the Romans practical; Greek patriotism was narrow, Roman patriotism broad; the Greeks built up the city-state, the Romans the nation. 6. There were many American beginnings in Greece and Rome.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How did the Romans connect their worship with the welfare of Rome?

2. How did there come to be one-man rule in Rome?

3. Where was Jesus born, and in whose rule?

4. Who were the Christians, and why were they persecuted?

5. What were the Catacombs, and how were they used?

6. Why was the progress of Christianity at first slow? When was it made the national religion?

7. What things have we learned from the Greeks and from the Romans?

8. Name as many as you can of American beginnings in Greece and Rome.

CHAPTER XI

THE GERMANS

German tribes cross the Roman frontier

87. The Romans and the Germans.—You will remember that after Cæsar had defeated Ariovistus and his German followers in Gaul, and had driven them back into their own land, he built a massive bridge across the Rhine, hoping that it would aid the Romans in keeping the Germans out of Gaul. But, even with the aid of the bridge, the Roman legions that guarded the Rhine and the Danube could not hold back the restless barbarians. Many times, during the next few hundred years, invaders crossed the frontier in wave after wave, and few ever went back, most of them finding new homes within the empire.

OLD ROMAN BRIDGE OVER THE MOSELLE, GERMANY

The Romans fail to conquer the Germans

Thinking to put an end to these inroads, the Romans sometimes themselves became the invaders. But they could not conquer their rude foes to the north, nor were

they able to push the boundaries of the empire beyond the Rhine and the Danube. To make these boundaries more secure, Germans were taken into the Roman legions to keep out their fellow-Germans. Cæsar was the first to do this, and often in later times whole tribes with their chiefs were thus enlisted and settled along the frontier. Why these world conquerors were always baffled by a horde of rude barbarians, unskilled in the arts of war, is a question we may well ask. To discover the reason, we must know something of the men themselves and their ways of living.

The circular cabin

88. The Germans in Their Homes.—Suppose that in those far-off days we had wandered into one of the trackless forests of Germany. After picking our way through thicket and swamp, we might have found ourselves on the edge of a clearing of considerable size. In its centre stands a cabin, circular in shape, with a thatched roof from which smoke is rising through a hole in the top. Lifting our eyes from this primitive dwelling, we notice at a distance a tall, strong-looking man with long flaxen hair and blue eyes, wearing a mantle of wool—unless he happens to be fur-clad. He

EARLY GERMAN AND GALLIC HABITATIONS, DRAWN FROM A PHOTOGRAPH OF THOSE CONSTRUCTED FOR THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1889

The German hunter

is the owner of the hut, and is just returning from a hunt. Waiting for him at the door is his wife, wearing a purple mantle or cloak, just like the man's except that it is of linen. Her arms are bare from the shoulder. Not far off are the children, playing at battle. They too are thinly clad for this cold climate; but they are brought up to be hardy warriors, and are never indulged.

The hunter at home

Dinner is ready for the hungry hunter, who eats at a table by himself and consumes a great quantity of venison, milk thickened with acid, and fruit. His drink is beer of his own brewing and made from grain raised on his own land. To-morrow, if there is no hunt and he is not called to battle, he will get up late, take a warm bath, and then spend the rest of the day in eating and sleeping. It may be that many days and weeks, one after another, will run on in the same way; for when he is not hunting or at war, he does little but sleep and eat. Very often he drinks too much of the home-made beer; often to while away the time he plays games of chance with his neighbors; for he is too ignorant to find amusement in other ways. He has no books of any kind, and could not read them if he had.

ANOTHER TYPE OF EARLY GERMAN AND GALLIC HABITATION, DRAWN FROM A PHOTOGRAPH OF ONE CONSTRUCTED FOR THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1889

The village and the family

But his wife is far from idle. She has the care of the house and children, as well as the tilling of the land. The master of the house owns his own lot and holds a share in the common pasture-land of the village. By village we must not think of a street with rows of houses; for each dwelling stands by itself, on any spot which has

attracted the owner, and is surrounded by a plot of ground. There is not a store or public building of any kind in this village. Every family gets its own food as well as it can; the wife, children, old men, and slaves raising the barley and wheat, while the husband does the hunting and fishing.

The meeting of freemen

89. The Assembly of Freemen.—If we wish to see the better side of the master of the household, we must go with him to battle; for since war is his chief business, it is as a warrior that he shows his strongest virtues. Before his summons to war, will probably come a call to the assembly of freemen. In an open plain he and his comrades sit down together, fully armed, each with a bright-colored shield and a short, narrow-bladed spear. Here they discuss questions bearing upon the welfare of the tribe.

The proud spirit of the warrior

90. The German Warriors Freedom-Loving, Loyal, and Brave.—In all public matters, such as their choice of a leader, the men of the tribe stand on an equal footing; for they are men of proud spirit, with a keen sense of personal honor, and they love independence and freedom. When the leader of the meeting puts a question, the men shout if their vote is "no," and clash their spears if it is "yes." To-day there is a loud clashing, for they have been asked whether they wish to make war on a neighboring tribe, and they are eager to fight.

The chief and his body-guard

Having voted for war, they next choose a strong, brave warrior and hunter for their chief. Then each chieftain, or head of a clan, gathers his followers about him. The flower of these is chosen for a special body-guard. It is an honor to belong to one of these body-

guards, which are composed of youths of the finest families and with a great reputation for bravery. Their duty is to protect their leader, and never to leave him.

Having once chosen a chief to their liking, they must be loyal to him even to death. Cowardice, indeed, is

Loyalty and bravery

RETURN OF VICTORIOUS GERMANS FROM A FIGHT WITH THE ROMANS

looked upon as worse than death, while to die on the battle-field is something greatly to be desired; for after death the brave go to Valhalla, the warrior's paradise. Nor must the chief let his followers outdo him in bravery, or he will lose their respect and bring shame upon himself for all time. He is loyal to the tribe; his men are loyal to him. To desert a leader or to lose a shield in battle is a lasting disgrace.

When a boy reaches manhood, he is brought into the solemn assembly of freemen and presented with a spear and a shield. He is thus made one of the defenders of

The young warrior

his tribe. But he does not become a full-fledged warrior until he has killed his man.

The women brave and warlike

Even the women have a warlike spirit. They go with the men to war, and in the hour of battle they dress wounds, give food to the fighters, urge them on to victory, and, if they see them giving way, sometimes even rush in and fight. Such brave women were held in high esteem by their warrior husbands, who sought their advice on all matters of importance. In their respect for women, these barbarians were far in advance of the civilized nations whom they supplanted.

Their gods and heroes

91. German Gods and Heroes.—But it is in the beautiful myths and legends of these early races that we find most clearly outlined the virtues they respected and the rewards they longed to possess. Like the Greeks and Romans, they had many gods and heroes. In name and character and in the form of worship they received, however, these were quite different from the Greek and Roman deities. In the first place, the Germans built no temples to their gods. Their only churches were sacred groves presided over by priests. Here the people worshipped Wotan, the greatest of their gods; Thor, god of the thunder, Wotan's son; and all the spirits of the woods and air and fields and streams, the great objects of nature

IMPERSONATION OF THE GOD WOTAN ON THE OPERATIC STAGE

such as the sun and moon and stars, and the earth and the mysterious thing called fire.

Wotan and Valhalla

Wotan was the god of war. His dwelling-place was Valhalla, or "the hall of the slain." Here dwelt with Wotan chosen heroes who had perished in battle, and now spent their time feasting and fighting in his service. In Valhalla dwelt also the Valkyrie, beautiful maidens, who were sent out daily by Wotan, fully armed, to select brave warriors for his service. With lightning playing all about them and with gleaming spears, they rode through the air upon their flying steeds, and at night returned across the rainbow bridge to Valhalla, each bearing with her a fallen hero. It was his hope of this shining reward —to serve Wotan in Valhalla —that helped the warrior to fight so bravely.

The Valkyrie and fallen heroes

SIEGFRIED FORGING HIS SWORD

The Nibelungenlied

The Germans also had, like the Greeks and Romans, stories of heroes and their brave deeds. The most noted of the hero legends are to be found in the Nibelungenlied, sometimes called the German Iliad. Although it was not written until many centuries later, parts of it were perhaps sung by the minstrels of those early days, and the stories were handed down orally from generation to generation.

The worth of loyalty and good faith

Of these stories Siegfried is the hero; and many thrilling incidents are told which show the worth of loyalty and good faith—loyalty of friend to friend, of warrior to chief and chief to warrior, loyalty to promise and to oath, to the gods and to religion. Upon good faith rests every triumph, and when faith is broken, misery and ruin follow. In this matter of good faith, as well as in that of personal freedom, these barbarians were above the civilized Greeks and Romans whom they succeeded.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The Romans could not conquer the Germans nor were they able to push the boundaries of the empire beyond the Rhine and the Danube. 2. The men of the German tribes stood on an equal footing. They were men of proud spirit, with a keen sense of personal honor, and they loved independence and freedom. 3. Loyalty and bravery were cardinal virtues, and cowardice was looked upon as worse than death. Even the women were brave and warlike. 4. The Nibelungenlied is sometimes called the German Iliad.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Imagine yourself in the home of a German family and tell all you can about the dress, the food, and the daily life of the hunter and his wife.

2. Describe the German village.

3. Who were in the chief's body-guard, and what was their relation to him?

4. What did the Germans think of bravery? Of cowardice?

5. Who was Wotan? Who were the Valkyrie? What was Valhalla?

6. What was the Nibelungenlied and who was Siegfried?

CHAPTER XII

THE GERMANS AND THE ROMANS

92. German Tribes Move Westward and Southward. —In the early centuries of the Christian era, these restless German tribes continued to move westward and southward. They were driven by growing numbers to seek more and better land, and also by the desire to share in the far-famed wealth of the Roman Empire. Its fertile plains and splendid cities had long been known to them by report through traders, and through their own warriors who had served in Roman armies.

Why the German tribes moved westward and southward

In the third century certain tribes broke through the barriers of the west, and made their way to northern Italy, but were there held back by the armies of the empire. In the fourth century, however, they were urged on by a more pressing need. For the Huns, fierce Mongolian tribes originally from north-eastern Asia, who had for centuries been working westward, were close upon them. Like a tornado they swept everything before them. Attila, their chief, was a terror to all less barbarous tribes, and later became known as the "scourge of God."

Attila and the Huns

At this time one of the most powerful of the German tribes was the Goths. A part of them, the Ostro-Goths (Eastern Goths), submitted to the Huns. Another part, the Visi-Goths (Western Goths), crossed the Danube and came into deadly conflict with the Romans. They defeated and killed the Roman Emperor Valens at Adrianople in what is now Bulgaria, but under his suc-

The Goths defeat the Romans

cessor, Theodosius,* they settled peacefully in the lands he gave them south of the Danube.

Alaric the King of the Goths

Here they remained quiet for a time, but upon the death of Theodosius they rose up against the Romans. They made Alaric their king. He was young and strong. Although he had been trained in the Roman legions and had twice been in Italy, he loved better the freedom of the north and the ways of his own people.

THE HUNS SWEEPING EVERYTHING BEFORE THEM AS THEY INVADED EUROPE

Other tribes break through the western frontier

First he led them into Greece, plundering and destroying as he went, and making his name a terror not only in the east, but in the west. Meantime other tribes of Germany, pushed by the conquests of the Huns, had broken through the western frontier of the Rhine. Some of them turned south into Italy, but were starved into submission. Others, among

*Theodosius, a man of great ability, was known as Theodosius the Great. He was the last ruler of the whole empire. Upon his death (395 A. D.) it was divided between his two sons. Honorius was Emperor of the West and Arcadius, his brother, was Emperor of the East.

them the Burgundians and the Vandals, entered Gaul. The Burgundians settled on the upper Rhine, in the province which still bears their name, and became allies of Rome. The Vandals, after plundering Gaul, crossed the Pyrenees into Spain. The Romans never regained control of these provinces.

Alaric hears a voice

93. **Alaric Advances upon Rome.**—After the breaking of the western frontier, Alaric took courage to advance upon Rome. He believed that he was specially called to do this; for as he was passing a sacred grove, he had heard a voice saying over and over again, "Proceed to Rome and make that city desolate." The words kept ringing in his ears until at last he seemed to have no other choice.

ALARIC

Taking their women and children with them, according to the custom of barbarian nations, the Goths marched westward, ravaging the land as they went. After many defeats and the loss of many warriors, they crossed the Alps and arrived at the very gates of Rome. The Goths laid siege to the city. Day after day they lay encamped before it, and daily the Romans watched for aid from the Emperor at Ravenna which he had made his capital. It never came. There was no food. Finally a plague fell upon the starving people.

The Goths lay siege to Rome

Then the Romans sent an embassy to Alaric, and with much bravado said they were not afraid of him, and would all come out and fight him unless he would make fair terms. But Alaric, knowing how helpless they were,

Alaric and the embassy

laughed loudly and answered with a Gothic proverb, "Thick grass is easier mowed than thin." "What, then, are your terms?" they asked. "I demand all your gold, your silver, your movable property, and your slaves," was the haughty answer. Dismayed by these words, the Romans then asked, "If you take all these things, what do you leave to us?" "Your lives," was the gruff answer. But when, later on, a body of senators came to Alaric to plead for easier terms, it was agreed that the Romans should give as a ransom five thousand pounds of gold, three thousand pounds of silver, four thousand silk tunics, three thousand hides dyed scarlet, and three thousand pounds of pepper. The terms of the ransom show that the barbarians were already acquiring a taste for Roman luxuries.

The ransom

Why Alaric captured Rome

94. **Alaric Captures and Plunders Rome.**—Then Alaric, with this immense booty, marched northward till he reached the fertile lands of northern Italy. Here he wished to remain and settle with his followers as the allies of Rome. Instead, therefore, of seizing the lands already his by conquest, this barbarian conqueror asked that they be allotted to his people by the Emperor. When the Emperor Honorius stupidly refused, Alaric offered to furnish military aid to Rome if he could have provisions and some land. The Roman Emperor dallied and broke promises. Alaric marched back to Rome, but once more spared the city, hoping to make terms. Finally, about two years after the first siege of Rome, his patience worn out by delays, Alaric in deadly earnest appeared with his army before the city for the third time, and captured it with little or no opposition.

10° Longitude East 20° from Greenwich
ANGLES 440
SAXONS 440
JUTES 477
ANGLES
SAXONS
LOMBARDS
VANDALS
SARMATIANS
BURGUNDIANS
Vistula R.
HUNS
Elbe R.
Rhine R.
GERMANY
HUNS
ATLANTIC OCEAN
FRANKS 420
Seine R.
Chalons
Paris
Orleans
Loire R.
SUEVES
BAVARIANS
OSTROGOTHS
Don R.
GAUL
BURGUNDIANS 413-443
LOMBARDS 468
VISIGOTHS
Aquileia
Po R.
Ravenna
OSTROGOTHS 495
Danube R.
SUEVES 409
Toulouse
Arles
Narbonne
ADRIATIC SEA
BLACK SEA
EMPIRE OF THE EAST
Adrianople
Constantinople
Tagus R.
Barcelona
ROME
VISIGOTHS 414-419
ITALY
VANDALS 429
New Carthage
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Carthage
THE BARBARIAN KINGDOMS.
Scale of Miles.
0 100 200 300 400 500
ORIGINAL HOME OF BARBARIANS IN BLUE
FINAL SETTLEMENTS OF BARBARIANS IN RED
DATES INDICATE TIME OF SETTLEMENT
THE M.-N. WORKS, BUFFALO, N.Y.

For three days Rome was given over to the plundering barbarians, but the sacred buildings and all who sought refuge within their walls were spared. Then Alaric marched down to the southern coast of Italy. Alaric's death

ALARIC AND HIS FOLLOWERS ENTERING ROME

Before he could carry out his further plans of conquest, however, he suddenly died. That the Romans might not find and dishonor his body, it is said that the current of a river was turned aside and a grave dug in the bed. Here they laid their brave leader, surrounding his body with treasures. The captives who had dug the grave were then killed, lest they should at some time reveal the secret. After Alaric's death, his people went northward into southern Gaul, where they settled and later extended their rule into Spain.

The capture of Rome by barbarians (410) was one of

the most astounding events of history. The marvel is not that a noble city had been pillaged and plundered, but that Rome, the centre of the world and for six hundred years the ruler of nations, had timidly given way to these barbarian hordes.

Why the Romans failed

95. Why the Germans Succeeded in Conquering the Romans.—Yet the simple fact is that the Romans failed because they had become unfit to carry forward the work they had done when they were strong and sturdy men. Since the days of Augustus their power as a nation had been weakened through increasing luxury and self-indulgence. And while the Romans were growing weaker, the restless barbarian hordes north of the Danube were increasing in numbers and in power. They knew nothing of ease and comfort. In their hard struggle as hunters and warriors in the forest wilds of Germany they had become manly, self-reliant, and masterful. As we have seen, many thousands of them were serving in Roman armies as hired soldiers, for the ease-loving Romans were no longer willing to endure the hardships of war. Many thousands more, also, were slaves and freedmen on the estates of wealthy Roman nobles. Under these conditions the Germans had learned much about the life of the Romans, had ceased to fear them, and desired to get control of what the Romans were not strong enough to hold.

RUINS OF A ROMAN IMPERIAL PALACE AT TREVES, GERMANY

Why the Germans succeeded

Before the close of the fifth century (476), the last Roman Emperor of the west was deposed. Not a province in western Europe was then Roman; the ruling power had come into the hands of the Germans. Surely the old reign of Italy was passing away, and a new Europe was about to take its place.

96. A New Europe under the Control of the Germans.—This new Europe was to be under the control of these vigorous men from the north. As we shall see, it took them many hundred years to appreciate the best things that had been done by the Greeks and the Romans. Therefore they did not stop with over-throwing the Roman Empire. They also destroyed many cities, and in some places swept away nearly all that Rome had done. But they preserved more than they destroyed, and added to what the Greeks and Romans had done many ideas, customs, and ways of living which have made life richer for us all. They were in fact both the successors and the heirs of the Romans, and as such took up the work of the Middle Ages, which began in the fifth century and ended in the fifteenth.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The German tribes were driven by growing numbers to seek more and better land, and also by a desire to share in the wealth of the Roman Empire. 2. The Goths, one of the most powerful of the German tribes, defeated the Romans. 3. In 410 Alaric, the king of the Goths, captured Rome. 4. The Romans failed because their power as a nation had been weakened through increasing luxury and self-indulgence. 5. The Germans succeeded not only because they had been increasing in numbers, but also because

they were manly, self-reliant, and masterful. They were the successors and heirs of the Romans. 6. The Middle Ages began in the fifth century and ended in the fifteenth.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Give three reasons why the German tribes moved into the Roman Empire.

2. Who was Alaric? What kind of man was he, and what kind of training had he received?

3. Tell what you can about the following: the siege of Rome; Alaric and the embassy; the ransom.

4. Why did Alaric capture Rome?

5. Explain why the Romans failed and why the Germans succeeded.

6. In what ways were the Germans unlike the Romans?

7. What is meant by a new Europe under the control of the Germans? When did the Middle Ages begin and when did they end? It is worth your while to remember these dates.

8. Are you making constant use of your maps?

CHAPTER XIII

ALFRED AND THE ENGLISH

The Franks and France

97. The Franks in France.—We have seen how, early in the fifth century, certain German tribes broke through the Roman frontiers into Gaul, swept southward into Italy, and captured Rome, the capital of the empire. Toward the close of the same century, other tribes of Germans, the Franks, who had been dwelling on the middle and lower Rhine, began the conquest of northern Gaul. Under the leadership of Clovis, one of the most powerful chiefs of that time, they conquered the last of the Roman territory in Gaul, which greatly increased their power, and then extended their sway over the German tribes who had occupied the east and south.

Thus the Franks brought under one dominion nearly all that country now known by the name of France. Clovis adopted the faith of the Christians, and hence-

CHARLEMAGNE BEING CROWNED EMPEROR AT ROME

forth the Frankish government went hand in hand with that of the church, a union which was of great value to both.

Charlemagne and his work

The greatest successor of Clovis was Charlemagne, who came three centuries later. He added to his realm most of what is now Germany and the western half of the Empire of Austria, and in the year 800 was crowned Emperor at

Rome. He is one of the most famous men of all time. We should remember him not only as a great warrior and statesman, but also as a lover of learning who started many schools and did much for education in his day. Although his empire did not last as a whole, out of it grew the feudal system, of which we shall speak later, and the union of the German and Roman ways of living.

How England received its name

98. German Tribes Invade and Conquer Britain.— We have now to learn that still other German tribes, some from Denmark and some from northern Germany, invaded and conquered Britain. These were the Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and Danes, the Angles being the tribes from which England (Angleland) at a later day received its name.

German tribes in Britain

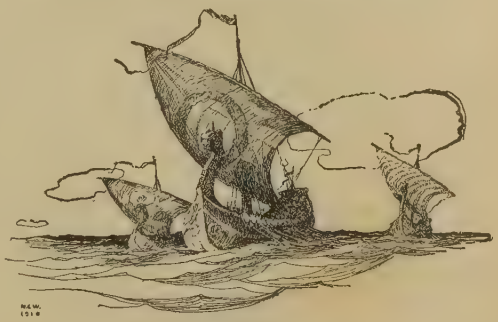
After the Romans withdrew their armies from Britain in the early part of the fifth century, it was invaded by the Picts from Scotland, the Scots from Ireland, and bands of Saxon pirates from the coast of Germany. The Britons first appealed to Rome for aid. But Rome was too busy protecting herself from the Goths. Then they turned to the Germans. Under two leaders, Hengist and Horsa, a band of Jutes landed at the island of Thanet in 449. After helping the Britons to overcome their enemies, they decided to remain and conquer the country, and in this conquest the Angles and Saxons took part. These tribes

A BIT OF STONEHENGE. THE EARLIEST ARCHITECTURAL MONUMENT IN BRITAIN

came from the region which lies between the Baltic and the North Seas, and includes Denmark and the states of north-western Germany.

99. What the German Tribes Destroyed in Britain.— Since these German tribes lived far to the north, they had not come under the influence of the Romans as had the tribes further to the south, and therefore were not so far advanced in the arts of living. On that account they were more destructive than their fellow-tribes. They laid waste cities, burned country mansions and splendid Roman palaces, and murdered, enslaved, or drove out of the land many of the people. Nor did these pagan warriors have any regard for sacred buildings; for they burned to ashes Christian churches, and drove off or slaughtered monks and priests. Wherever they went, in fact, during the first one hundred and fifty years of their stay in Britain, they put an end to Christianity.

The destructive Germans



SAXON SHIPS

100. Christianity in Britain.—How large a footing the Christian faith had gained in Britain during the stay of the Romans is uncertain. We know that when they conquered Britain they found the people there under the sway of priests called Druids, who worshipped in oak groves and offered human sacrifices. We know also that, on account of the bitter opposition of the Druids, the Romans destroyed them. Christian mis-

The Druids

sionaries in the time of Constantine labored to make converts among the natives, but their influence was probably not felt much outside the towns and cities.

The invading Angles and Saxons

In their career of destruction, these Angles and Saxons were very different from the other tribes that invaded the continent. There the invaders adopted the customs, language, and faith of the people they conquered; but in Britain the old civilization was swept away, and even the language, Latin and Celtic, gave place to that of the conquerors. All classes spoke the Germanic tongue.

THE SAXON INVADERS

101. The Coming of Christian Missionaries.— One bond of union with the past and with Europe, however, was established by Christian missionaries. A pretty story is told of how missionaries from Rome were sent to convert these rude German pagans. One day an abbot of Rome, named Gregory, saw a group of beautiful boys waiting in the market-place of the city to be sold as slaves. "Who are these children?" asked he of the slave-dealer. "Heathen Angles," was the reply. "Not Angles but Angels," said Gregory, "with faces so angel-like! From what country do they come?" When he found that they came from Britain and were

Gregory and the Angle boys

heathen, he grieved because such fine boys were brought up in ignorance and sin.

102. Augustine and the Monks at Canterbury.— The landing of Augustine

Later on, when Gregory became Pope, he sent to Britain a monk named Augustine, with a band of forty other monks, to convert the people to the Christian faith. At first the monks were afraid to go, for people told them fearful tales of the English barbarians. But Gregory would not let them turn back. They set sail for Britain and landed on the Isle of Thanet (597). After a few days, King Ethelbert of Kent, whose wife was a Christian, came to the isle to meet them. As he thought they were magicians and might throw a spell over him, he and his followers met them in an open field instead of in a building.

POPE GREGORY I

Let us try to picture the scene. Here under the branches of a spreading oak are seated King Ethelbert and Queen Bertha. Beside the King are his counsellors and body-guard, and near the queen are her maids and her chaplain. A crowd has gathered to see the royal reception of the strange priests from over-seas, and you may be sure that little Kentish boys and girls are somewhere near to see what is going on. The royal reception

An interesting procession

The sound of men's voices is heard. Then appears a body of priests bearing in front a tall silver cross and a banner with a picture of Christ on it. Following them is a procession of forty monks in russet robes and cowls, headed by a boy singer. They walk slowly, two by two, chanting and praying for the salvation of the English

OLD ROMAN CHURCH OF ST. MARTIN, CANTERBURY

as they advance. Behind them all is Augustine himself. When they reach the assembled English, Augustine sits down and preaches the Gospel to the wondering listeners.

The King gracious to the monks

The King is gracious to the new-comers. They may remain in the kingdom, he says, and he will see that they have a house in Canterbury, his capital. He will not allow them to be in want, and they may pursue their work among his people in peace. This welcome was a great encouragement to the weary monks.

The monks at Canterbury

They walked on toward Canterbury and, looking down from a neighboring hill, saw in a little meadow crossed by a stream an old town surrounded with Roman walls. Just outside stood the old Roman church of St. Martin,

which they for a time were to use. The building is still standing to-day. Here they had also a monastery, and lived the quiet, religious life of monks, holding constant service to which every one was welcome, and working faithfully to convert the people to the Christian faith.

103. The Spread of Christianity in Britain.—King Ethelbert was one of the first converts to accept the faith, and soon his example was followed by many others. One Christmas day more than ten thousand people were baptized. Augustine was appointed archbishop of Canterbury, and down to the present time his successors as heads of the official English church have had the same title. In a short time nearly all who lived in Kent had become Christians, and many converts were made in other parts of the island, won by the devoted lives of the missionaries.

Thousands become Christians

ST. AUGUSTINE

When Augustine and his monks began their work in the south, missionaries from the church in Ireland and the islands west of Scotland were already busy converting the people in the north. They were followers of St. Patrick, who had made Ireland a centre of Christianity after the Celts were driven out of England by the Saxons. Their missionaries were enthusiastic and devoted men, and won many converts by their unselfish lives. Monasteries spread rapidly. But it was

the Roman form of Christianity which finally prevailed over all England.

The monasteries as centres of religious life and learning

With the Roman monks came Roman literature and culture, and the monasteries became centres not only of religious influence, but of learning as well. Those of Northumbria were not excelled by any in western Europe. It was here that English literature took its start, the most famous man of letters of the seventh and early eighth centuries being the English monk Baeda, called "The Venerable Bede."

Although Christianity lost its hold in Britain for a time after Augustine's death, his work was so thorough that it was never wholly destroyed, and in time the Christian faith overspread the entire country.

The Vikings

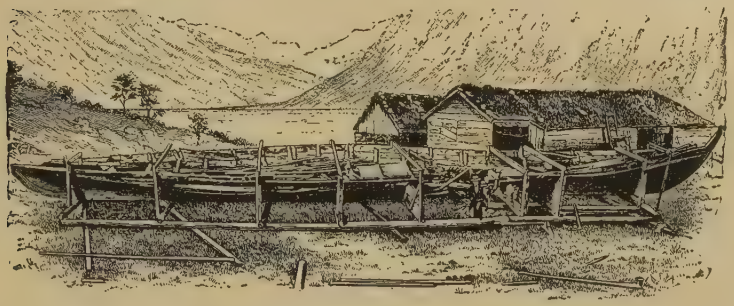
104. The Coming of the Vikings.—Britain had not seen the last of her German invaders with the coming of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. In the eighth and ninth centuries she was beset by the fiercest, most brutal, and least civilized of any of the barbarian invaders. These were the Vikings, or Northmen, bold sea rovers who came swarming down from Scandinavia, visiting the coasts not only of Britain but of all western Europe. In later centuries, as we shall see, they sailed even to Iceland and Greenland. Fighting and plundering were their greatest joy, and they kept Europe in fear for generations.

The Vikings as warriors

The Northmen included both Danes and Norwegians; but the Danes were the terror of Britain, and it was feared that the whole country would fall under their sway. They were better trained in fighting, and had much more effective weapons, than the other German

tribes. Not only had they coats of mail, but swords, spears, and powerful axes.

Their ships were long, light, open vessels, and moved quickly. The largest were worked by twenty oarsmen, Viking ships



REMAINS OF THE VIKING SHIP OF GOKSTAD, AFTER ITS REMOVAL FROM THE MOUND WHERE IT WAS FOUND

and each vessel had a heavy square sail to use in favorable winds. They were painted black, with high prow and stern. The prow was carved into the shape of a snake's or a dragon's head. Around the bulwarks hung the round, painted shields of the fighters. When one of these black vessels came suddenly and swiftly sailing up the river with its fierce crew, it struck terror to the hearts of the people.

Year by year their numbers multiplied. Swift as the wind, at first they made only short raids, harrying the coasts. But each time they came they went further inland, attracted by the

THE BOW OF THE VIKING SHIP OF GOKSTAD, SHOWING RESTORED STEERING BOARD ON THE LEFT, AND COMPLETE SHIP ABOVE

The Vikings raid Britain

cultivated lands and prosperous towns, which were once more a feature of Britain. They raided York, London, and Canterbury, and in time seized the whole country north of the Thames. They were about to advance upon Wessex, which lay to the south, when finally a leader rose up against them. This was King Alfred.

KING ALFRED

105. Alfred and the Danes.—Alfred, by some considered the best and greatest King that England ever had, was the youngest child of Ethelwulf, King of Wessex and Kent. His mother was a noble lady of the race of Cerdic, one of the original Saxon invading chiefs. Either from her or from the Romans —for he spent a part of his boyhood in Rome — Alfred learned to love knowledge and books.

The little Alfred and the book of Saxon poetry

This is well illustrated in a pretty story which is told of his childhood. When he was only four years old, his mother showed him and his brothers a book of Saxon poetry. It was a beautiful book, illuminated in brilliant colors, and written by hand, as books were in those days. She promised to give it to the one who should repeat the poems from memory. The little Alfred ran away with it to his teacher, and soon returned and repeated it to his mother, word for word. Even if this story is not true, it shows how greatly famed Alfred was for his desire for knowledge. He was a bright, attractive boy, of winning speech and manners.

The Danes harass the country

All through his boyhood the Danes were harassing the country and terrifying the people; and when at twenty-

two years of age he became king (871), he had to give his whole time to beating them back. As they were ignorant themselves and hated those who sought knowledge, they sacked abbeys, burned schools and monasteries, and slaughtered the monks.

The Danes defeat Alfred

Alfred fought nine battles with them. He was defeated each time, and his army not only became weak, but lost its courage. Finally, at the beginning of the winter, he was forced to retreat into a region of woods and swamps. The people thought he was lost. It was a long, dreary winter for him and his followers.

Story of Alfred and the cowherd's wife

In later days the people were fond of telling stories of how Alfred spent his time during this trying experience. While these stories may not be true, they help us to see what the people thought of the man who did so much to make England a better country. According to one of these stories, he once took refuge in the hut of a cowherd who knew him, but whose wife did not. Seeing his ragged clothing, she thought him of little account. She was baking bread before the open fire, and told him to watch it while she went out; but he had more important matters on his mind. When the woman returned, Alfred was sitting in a brown study, with the bread burning under his nose. His reward was a sharp scolding for being so stupid, as the woman thought him.

Alfred as a minstrel

Another story, popular among the people, reveals his ability to play on the harp and sing. He gathered his comrades into a safe place, disguised himself as a minstrel, and went to the Danish camp, where his sweet music charmed the warriors. The king heard of his ability and called him to the royal tent. Here Alfred

overheard the Danish plan of campaign. He slipped away, called his men, and, making a sudden attack on his enemies, put them to rout.

Alfred defeats the Danes

As a fact, however, Alfred spent his winter as a general and statesman should, in gathering, drilling, and supplying his army. This explains to us why he won a vic-

KING ALFRED INCITING HIS FOLLOWERS TO REPEL THE INVASION OF THE DANES, WHOSE SHIPS HAVE BEEN SIGHTED

tory when he met his enemy. As spring came on, he gathered his men behind his fortress at Athelney. When he unfolded his standard, men rejoiced, for many had given up him and the kingdom for lost. Many new recruits, eager to fight under a brave leader, joined his army; and although his force was not large, he made a sudden and desperate attack on the Danes at Ethandune. He drove them to their camp, besieged them for fourteen days, and forced them to surrender.

In the treaty which followed, the Danes agreed to settle

ENGLAND
at the close of
King Alfred's Reign
Boundary between Danish Territory and Alfred's Kingdom
SCOTS
LOTHIAN
STRATHCLYDE
CUMBRIA
BERNICIA
IRELAND
Jarrow
Wearmouth
Streonshalh
Man
THE
York
Manchester
THE FIVE
Thelwall
Bakewell
Lincoln
GWYNEDD
Chester
BOROUGHS
Derby
Nottingham
Leicester
POWYS
Tamworth
Stamford
Bridgenorth
ENGLISH
Warwick
St. Edmundsbury
Bedford
Towcester
Tempsford
MERCIA
Witham
GWENT
Gloucester
Oxford
Hertford
London
Chippenham
Reading
Merton
Wedmore
Ashdown
Canterbury
Ethandun
Winchester
Athelney
WESSEX
Wilton
Exeter
Wareham
Hengistesdun

down peacefully north of the Thames and to become Christians. All England south of the Thames remained to Alfred. In fact, as a result of this victory, the English and the Danes came gradually to be united as one people.

Alfred and the laws

106. Alfred Improves His Kingdom.—After defeating the Danes, Alfred had time to improve his kingdom. The laws were very confused, since each tribe had had different ones. So Alfred had all the best laws gathered into one book, beginning with the Ten Commandments, and forced all his people to obey them. Another important matter to which he gave much thought and time was the building of a fleet of swift war vessels; for his experience with the Vikings had taught him the great value of ships in warding off invaders. This was the beginning of the English navy, which has done so much to make that little island-country a great world-power.

Alfred's interest in education

His great desire, however, now that law and order could be kept, was to educate the people. England had the most beautiful books in the world at this time, but few people could read them except the monks. And now that learning had so fallen off during the inroads of the Danes, many even of the monks could not understand Latin. Alfred, therefore, rebuilt the abbeys and schools which the Danes had destroyed, and at his court established a school for his own children and the children of his nobles and bishops and friends. They were taught not only to read and write in their own language but to read Latin. Wherever he knew that there were learned men, he sent there for them and brought them to his court, to teach him and his people.

Alfred and English literature

As most of the standard works of that day were in Latin and Alfred wished his people to have the benefit of them, he made translations of those he considered the most useful, and sent copies to all his bishops. He wrote a few books himself and gathered all the English ballads into one volume.

This work of Alfred's was important far beyond the help it gave to his own people and time. For it made English, which was the language of the common people, a language of literature. His translations fixed its form and preserved it for succeeding generations.

"Alfred the Great"

Alfred became a powerful ruler and left his kingdom far stronger and far better than he found it. All his people loved him, for he was devoted to their welfare. Well has he been called "Alfred the Great."

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The Franks brought under one dominion all that country now known by the name of France. 2. Charlemagne was crowned Emperor of Rome in the year 800. He is one of the most famous men of all time. 3. A band of Jutes landed in England in 449. Wherever the German invaders went during the first one hundred and fifty years of their stay in Britain they put an end to Christianity. 4. Augustine and forty monks landed in England in 597. They had a monastery at Canterbury. 5. Monasteries spread rapidly, and in time the Christian faith overspread all Britain. 6. King Alfred defeated the Danes, who had been harassing the country. As a result of his victory over them, the English and the Danes came gradually to be united as one people. 7. Alfred had all the best laws gathered into one book, made translations of standard works, and wrote some books himself. He made English a language of literature.

TO THE PUPIL

1. From what people did France get its name?
2. Who was Charlemagne and when did he live?
3. What German tribes invaded Britain? How did England get its name?
4. Who were the Druids and what became of them?
5. Imagine yourself at the royal reception given to Augustine and his monks, and write an account of what took place.
6. What did these monks do for Christianity in Britain?
7. Who were the Vikings? Describe these vessels and their methods of making raids.
8. Tell the story of little Alfred and the book of Saxon poetry. What does this story illustrate?
9. Write out as clearly as you can the story of Alfred and the cowherd's wife.
10. What important things did King Alfred do to improve his kingdom? Note especially his work in making English a language of literature.
11. Now give as many reasons as you can for calling this noble king Alfred the Great.
12. Are you making constant use of the map?

CHAPTER XIV

HOW THE ENGLISH BEGAN TO WIN THEIR LIBERTIES

Rollo and Normandy

107. Rollo and the Vikings Invade France.—As we have already said, England was not the only country that suffered from the inroads of the Vikings. France was constantly invaded in the same way. One band of these warriors, under a leader named Rolf or Rollo, in the tenth century seized a part of northern France. As the king could not hope to drive them out, he invited Rollo to settle down with his men and become his vassal. Rollo agreed; and in time this district came to be known

as Normandy, and the people were called Normans, a contraction of "Northmen."

The dukes of the Normans

As time passed, many Northmen settled here; and their leaders, the dukes of the Normans, were often as powerful as any king in Europe. One of these we are especially interested in because he took such an important part in English history. This was William, who became William I of England and is known as William the Conqueror.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

William's claim to the throne

108. William, Duke of the Normans, Conquers England.—When Edward the Confessor, King of the English, died without leaving an heir, Harold, the greatest noble in the kingdom, was elected to succeed him. But William, Duke of the Normans, who had no good claim to the throne, declared that it had been promised to him by Edward, and that Harold himself had sworn on the sacred relics that he would assist him in getting the crown.

William, King of the English

He made haste to collect an army, sailed to England, defeated Harold at the battle of Hastings, or Senlac, in 1066, and the next Christmas day was crowned king in Westminster Abbey. He brought all the people under his rule, but promised to let them be just as free as they had been under their former kings. Though King of the English, he still remained Duke of the Normans. In England he, his two sons, and his grandson are called the Norman kings.

William's castles and the feudal system

109. The Influence of the Normans upon England.—The influence of the Normans upon England was marked in several ways. In the first place, they were a quick-witted and clever people, the most masterful in all Europe. They had remarkable power of doing things well on a large scale, and this showed itself at once. William placed strong castles all over the kingdom, in which he put vassals loyal to himself and sternly exacted from them, and from their vassals in turn, the strictest obedience. In this way he built up the feudal system in England, with a strong central government. The same ability showed itself in the building of churches and monasteries, which became a great power in the land. It was during this period that many of England's greatest cathedrals were begun, the Norman style of architecture, brought from France, displacing that of the earlier Saxon.

A SHIP OF DUKE WILLIAM'S FLEET WHICH TRANSPORTED TROOPS FOR THE INVASION OF ENGLAND. FROM THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY, A CONTEMPORARY WORK

The building of monasteries and cathedrals

FIGHTING AS PICTURED IN THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY, A CONTEMPORARY WORK

Norman influence in language and literature

In yet another way, more gentle but not less permanent, was the Norman influence felt, and that was in language and literature. French became the language which the upper classes spoke, just as Latin was the language of the church, and only the common people in the every-day walks of life spoke Anglo-Saxon. English literature was well-nigh forgotten, and English thought for centuries was fashioned by the French.

ARMOR OF THE TIME OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

King John plots against his brother

110. The Wicked King John.—One of William's successors was King Richard I, the Lion-Heart, who ascended the throne in 1189. He was a brave warrior and, as we shall see further on, spent much of his time fighting as a crusader in the Holy Land. During his absence, his wicked brother John plotted to get the throne for himself, and when Richard, on his way home from Je-

THE NORMAN GATEWAY OF WINDSOR CASTLE

rusalem, was taken prisoner, John thought that now he could surely be king, as he hoped that Richard would not be set free. But the English people, at a great sacrifice, raised a large sum of money, and bought Richard's freedom.

A worthless and wicked king

After Richard's death John became King of England (1199). He was such a worthless and wicked king that we feel sorry to think he ever held the throne. But if he had been better, perhaps the people would not have been roused as they were to demand their rights.

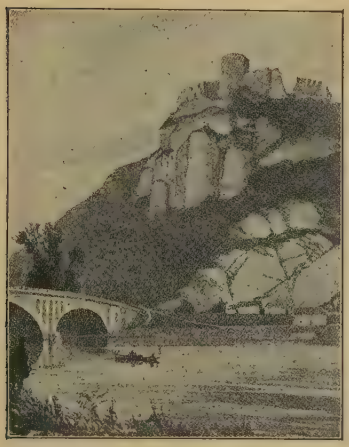
KING RICHARD I, THE LION-HEART

A lawless king

John's wicked deeds were so many that we can only mention a few of them. We have already seen how he plotted against his brother. He showed himself treacherous at another time by marrying a young woman who was pledged to marry the son and heir of one of his own nobles. As this was against the feudal law, it brought him into further trouble.

King John robs soldiers and sailors

During John's reign, Philip of France invaded Normandy and won it from John. John did not try very hard to prevent him from doing this; but when it was done, he gathered his army and navy together in England and prepared to fight Philip. When all the fleet was assembled, and the soldiers had left their homes and their work and come to the coast, the King changed his mind and sent them all home again. The worst of this action was that he made every soldier and sailor pay a fine, because they had escaped from going to war. This was an act of robbery.



CHÂTEAU GAILLARD
NORMANDY, FRANCE. ONE OF KING RICHARD'S CASTLES, ONCE THE MAIN OUTPOST OF HIS NORMAN TERRITORY

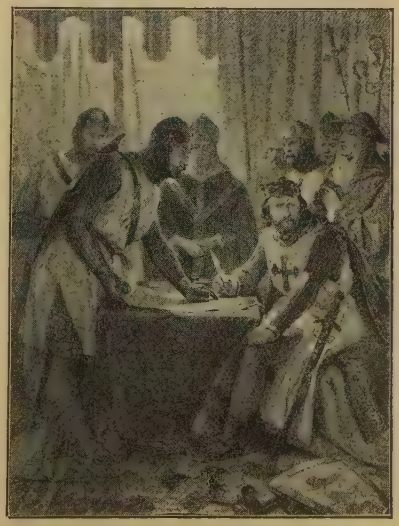
He robs the churches also

He also robbed the churches. He refused to obey the Pope, and the Pope, as punishment, ordered that every church in England should be closed. The clergymen thought they must obey the Pope; but whenever they did, John took their property from them, as well as all the money belonging to their churches.

The need of a charter

111. **King John Signs the Great Charter.**—The barons or nobles of England felt that the King's outrages must not be endured. Acting as a leader, the Archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton, at a meeting held in St. Paul's, showed them how John might be made to sign a charter; that is, a written statement in which he should agree that there were certain things he could not do, and that the people had certain rights he could not take from them.

To this the barons agreed, and made known to John their demands, saying that they were



KING JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CHARTA

John forced to sign the Great Charter

ready to fight if necessary. The King was terrified. He wished to escape giving the charter, but he had no army to fight the barons, and all the people hated him. Finally he yielded, and called a meeting which was held in the meadow of Runnymede, near Windsor, on the Thames River. The barons' camp was on one bank, the King's on the other, and on an island between were the delegates who were to discuss the charter. They soon agreed upon one, and John signed it. But he did not intend to keep his agreement.

The promises in the charter

The charter—called Magna Charta (Great Charter)—was long, and contained many promises made by the King to the people. Of these, two were very important. The first was, that the King should never collect more money than was due him without first getting the consent of the Great Council of barons and knights. This meant, among other things, that he would never again fine soldiers and sailors because he decided not to employ them. The second promise was that the King would never again throw men into prison without showing just cause. All who were arrested for wrong-doing must be tried in court, as they are in our times, and if they were not found guilty they must be set free. The most valuable feature of the charter was that all the rights which came to be founded upon it, were for the common people as well as the nobles. It is this which has created the democratic freedom of the English-speaking peoples.

What the Great Charter means to us

Henry III and Simon de Montfort

112. **The English Parliament.**—John's son, Henry III, was only a boy when his father died, and until he was grown up noblemen ruled for him. When at length he began to reign for himself, people saw that he was very weak and unfit to govern a growing kingdom. He

did not like to take advice, and he was constantly changing his mind. Finally the barons could endure him no longer. They made war on him, and took him and his son Edward prisoners. Then their leader, Simon de Montfort, ruled in his stead, though he was not called king.

The first real Parliament

Simon de Montfort's rule was important, for it was he who called the first Parliament. Before this the Great Council had been attended by the barons and bishops. Now not only these nobles and clergymen were summoned (1265), but also two men from each of certain towns and two from every shire (county). This was a long step forward. It meant that the common people were to have a share in the government. De Montfort's rule was short, however; for the King's son escaped from prison, and in a sudden attack Simon de Montfort was killed and the barons defeated.

MANOR HOUSE, ACTON BURNELL, SHROPSHIRE. BUILT FOR THE HOLDING OF THE FIRST PARLIAMENT

Edward I and Parliament

Edward proved to be a strong and wise King, beloved by his people. His favorite motto was "Keep your promise," and he always tried to keep his. It was not until 1295 that he called a full Parliament such as Simon de Montfort's, but it proved to be such a successful way of consulting the people that afterward a full Parliament became the rule. Thus the people of all classes were represented in the government.

An important event in Edward's reign was the renewal of the Great Charter, with special promises in it that the King would not take money from the people unless the full Parliament was willing that he should.

The people gradually lose their rights

113. American Beginnings in Germany and England.—This struggle between the King and the barons was no sudden thing. For centuries the people had been gradually losing their rights while the King had been growing in power. To find out how much they had lost and what they were trying to get back, let us look at them as they were in the forests of Germany long before they left their homes for other lands.

The equality of German freemen

You will remember that those rugged Germans prized their independence as they prized their life; that in their meetings each freeman helped to elect the chief who should lead him in battle; and that all freemen stood on an equal footing when matters affecting the good of the people were discussed. Now when the German tribes went across the North Sea to England in the fifth century, they carried with them their ways of managing their affairs. Each village had its moot, or meeting, where all the freemen assembled to regulate the affairs of the village. A group of villages large enough to furnish a hundred warriors formed a hundred, and later a still larger group formed a shire. Just as the village had its moot to attend to the affairs of the village, so had the hundred and the shire each its moot to look after the larger affairs of its people.

The moots of the village, the hundred, and the shire

The village moot the beginning of the town meeting

But while all the freemen met in the village moot, only a small number of freemen from every village were elected by the whole body to represent them in the moot

of the hundred and of the shire. In the village moot each man had the right to share equally in the government by taking a part in the meeting. This was the beginning of that valuable American institution called the town meeting, where all the voters of the town come together to regulate their local affairs.

The moots of the hundred and the shire the beginnings of representative government

The electing of men in the village moot to represent them in the larger moots of the hundred and the shire was the beginning of the American system of representative government. In these larger bodies, as in our State legislatures and in our Congress, each voter shared equally in the government, not by taking part directly, as in the town meeting which is held near his home, but by helping to elect men to represent him. This is the representative system which those early Angles and Saxons, with a love of fair play and a keen sense of individual freedom, made a part of the political life of England, just as, in later years, Anglo-Saxons brought it to our own land. The beginnings of much that we freedom-loving Americans enjoy in our political life to-day are to be found in the village moots of Germany and of England.

WESTMINSTER HALL, WHERE PARLIAMENT WAS HELD

In the centuries of struggle following the conquest of England by the German tribes, the people, as we have

The English Parliament and our National Congress

seen, lost much of their power. But the kingship always remained elective; and finally, as we have noted, the representative system came into full swing in the English Parliament, where all classes of people are now represented just as all classes are represented in our National Congress at Washington.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The Vikings invaded France as well as England. A band of these seized a part of northern France. After a time this district came to be known as Normandy and its people as Normans. 2. William, Duke of the Normans, was made King of the English (1066). 3. The influence of the Normans upon England was marked in several ways. 4. King John was so worthless and wicked that the barons or nobles of England felt that his outrages must not be endured, so they forced him to sign the Great Charter (1215). 5. The most valuable feature of the charter was that all the rights which came to be founded upon it were for the common people as well as the nobles. It is this which has created the democratic freedom of the English-speaking peoples. 6. The struggle between King John and the barons indicates that for centuries the people had been gradually losing their rights while the King had been growing in power. When the German tribes went across the North Sea to England in the fifth century they carried with them their ways of managing their affairs. And you will remember that among the German tribes all freemen stood on an equal footing when matters affecting the good of the people were discussed. 7. The village moot was the beginning of the American town meeting; and the moots of the hundred and the shire were the beginnings of such representative government as we have in our State legislatures and in our National Congress at Washington.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Who were the Vikings and what two countries did they invade?
2. Can you explain how William, Duke of the Normans, came to be King of the English?
3. Why did he place strong castles all over the kingdom?
4. In what ways was the Norman influence upon England marked?
5. In what ways did John show himself to be a worthless and lawless King?
6. What is a charter? Name two very important promises made by the King to the people in the Great Charter.
7. Tell what the Great Charter means to us. You will see from this that the barons were doing things which prepared for the greater democratic freedom of the English-speaking peoples who were to come after them.
8. Who was Simon de Montfort and what did he do?
9. Do you see clearly how the village moot was the beginning of the town meeting in our own country and how the moots of the hundred and the shire were the beginning of our representative government?
10. In what respect are the English Parliament and our National Congress alike?

CHAPTER XV

FEUDALISM: OR, THE LORD, THE CASTLE, AND THE KNIGHT

Each community lives its own life

114. **How the Feudal System Began.**—After the Germans got control of affairs in the countries of western Europe, they brought to an end much that had been built up by the Romans. They swept away many of the cities, and failed to keep in repair the superb system of roads and bridges which had closely connected all parts of the empire. As a result travel, and the carrying of letters, messages, and goods, came to be so difficult that in time trade between one country and another, or even between

one place and another, often in great measure stopped. Each community, therefore, had mainly to live its own life. It raised its own food and used only those things which its own people could supply. It also handled

THE FEUDAL FORTIFICATIONS, CARCASSONNE, FRANCE, AS THEY ARE TO-DAY

but little money, for there was but little money to be had, and the old barter of goods for goods suited the local trade fairly well in most things.

How each community was governed

The method of governing the people became equally primitive. For since Rome was no longer able to maintain law and order, and there was no strong central governing power anywhere in western Europe, each community had to keep order for itself and protect itself against danger and violence, just as it had to provide the food and other things needed for its daily life.

115. Charlemagne's Empire.—There was a brief period during the empire under Charlemagne when conditions were improved. This great leader of the Franks in his long reign of nearly half a century (768–814) had brought within his vast empire, as we have seen, much of what is now western Europe, and had ruled it with a strong hand.

Charlemagne's empire broken into fragments

But Charlemagne's empire did not last. After his death it was broken into so many fragments that such a thing as the authority of a strong central state, like that in our own country to-day, passed away. In the dark and dreadful time of strife and hatred which followed, things went from bad to worse. There was a desperate struggle of rival leaders for power, and when these leaders were not striving to ward off barbarian attacks, they were quarrelling among themselves.

The rich land-owner a ruler and law-giver

116. The Rich Land-owner and Personal Service.—In the great confusion and disorder of these times, the ownership of land played a large part. The rich land-owner was the most powerful man in any rural locality, and he became the ruler and law-giver of the people who lived on his land. It was his duty to provide some way of protecting life and property, and of maintaining law and order in the community. To do this, he must have men willing to fight for him, men to attend his courts of justice, where disputes were settled and wrongs righted, and men to do the every-day work of providing food, clothing, and the usual conveniences of life. These three forms of personal service he could secure by granting to various men the use of his land. They needed protection; he needed personal service.

Protection and service

If we wish to learn how this exchange of the use of land for personal service was brought about, and what were the relations between the powerful man who ruled and the weaker men who served him, we must study the feudal system. This began to take deep root in western Europe in the ninth and tenth centuries.

The promises made by the vassal

117. **The Lord and the Vassal.**—Imagine that you are a great land-owner or baron, and that you turn over a part of your land to a man to hold and to use for you. That land is called a fief, or feud, and the man who receives it is called a vassal. In return for the use of the land, your vassal promises to fight for you, who are now his lord, to attend your law court, and under certain conditions to pay you money. The fighting may be in defence of your castle or in an attack upon your enemies; and the payment of money may be for your ransom if you are made a prisoner, for the knighting of your eldest son, or for the marriage of your eldest daughter. In return you, the lord, promise to protect your vassal, and allow him to govern as he sees fit all the people who live on the land he is to hold and to use.

The ceremony of making a man a vassal

The agreement is made in a formal way. The ceremony is an interesting one. The vassal with bare head kneels before you, his future lord, places his hands between your hands, and repeats these words: "From this time forward I will be your man." You, the lord, raising your vassal to his feet, give him the kiss of peace, and he in turn declares, "I will be faithful to you and defend you even at the risk of my life." In token of the grant of land, you then give him a twig or a clod of earth.

KENILWORTH CASTLE, WARWICKSHIRE. FOUNDED ABOUT 1120. BESIEGED AND TAKEN BY ROYALISTS 1266. PRISON OF EDWARD II IN 1327. GRANTED TO JOHN OF GAUNT. SCENE OF ENTERTAINMENTS TO QUEEN ELIZABETH. DISMANTLED UNDER CROMWELL.

The relation between the lord and his vassal

By such a formal ceremony as this, every lord bound himself to protect his vassal, treat him justly, and allow him to remain in control of the land as long as he kept his part of the agreement and was loyal to his lord. Thus the relation between the lord and his vassals was very much like that which we saw existing between the chief and his warriors in the German forests.

William the Conqueror and the land-owners of England

118. **The Theory of the Feudal System.**—According to the theory, as finally worked out by the lawyers, the greatest of all land-owners was the King. He was the lord of all the land in his kingdom. Some of his vassals were powerful nobles, each of whom had vassals who paid homage to him just as he himself paid homage to the King. But when William the Conqueror became King of England, he compelled all the land-owners, of any account, to pay homage directly to himself; and in this way he greatly strengthened the royal power in England. The abbot, as head of a monastery, might also be lord over vassals, and a vassal under a lord. William required from each bishop and abbot the same homage and feudal service that he would require from a noble holding the same land.

Why men became vassals

We of to-day also buy protection when we pay taxes to the state or the nation. The amount is so very small, however, that it is no burden, and so peaceful are the times that we cannot easily realize the danger and turmoil of those lawless days when every one in the land from the lowest to the highest, lived in constant fear of being plundered, robbed, or murdered. A violent attack by barbarian invaders or even by a neighboring lord might come any day without warning. Therefore pro-

tection of life and property was worth all it cost. But if the lord was to be the protector of his vassals he must have not only men to fight for him, but a stronghold for defence. Such he provided when he built his castle.

119. The Castle.—Let us visit one of these castles, which was both a fortress and a dwelling-place, bearing in mind that castles differed from one another in many of their details. As we approach we catch our first glimpse of it on a distant hill, which commands a view of the surrounding country, and affords an excellent location for defence. Hugging the hill closely is a scattering village of peasant huts, with meadows and pasture lands stretching away to dense woodlands beyond. Surrounding the castle are huge stone walls, twelve feet thick and forty feet high.

The castle and its surroundings

THE DRAWBRIDGE OF THE CASTLE

Just outside the walls is a great moat, or ditch, sixty feet wide and fifty feet deep, which may be filled with water. Before we can enter the only gateway in the castle walls, we must wait for the drawbridge to be let down over the moat. It is now upright against the

The moat, the drawbridge, and the gateway

THE CASTLE TOWERS AND BATTLEMENTS, MANNED FOR DEFENCE

towers of the gateway, to which it is joined at its inner end by means of strong hinges. To the outer end of the bridge are fastened long chains by which it is let down by some one in the tower, who turns a windlass. We cross over, but we cannot yet pass through the wall into the court-yard; for the portcullis, an iron gate, bars the entrance. Presently, if we are patient, this will move from our pathway. It will not swing on hinges like an ordinary gate, but will be raised by a windlass in the tower.

The towers and battlements

If we are observing, we have noticed that at intervals on the walls there are towers and battlements which serve to strengthen the defence of the castle, and to protect the defenders when they shoot their arrows, hurl rocks and stones, or pour boiling oil or pitch upon the enemy below; and the only windows are narrow slits, easily defended, from which missiles can be safely launched. On the walls stand watchmen also, who are

constantly on the lookout for an approaching enemy and ready to give the alarm by a trumpet blast.

How the castle was attacked

So you see that in the days when cannon and heavy guns were unknown, for gunpowder did not come into use in western Europe until the early part of the fourteenth century, it was extremely difficult to capture a

THE GREAT HALL OF THE CASTLE. THE OATH OF FEALTY TO THE YOUNG LORD

castle when there were brave men to defend it. Arrows, lances, swords, and battle-axes would make but little impression on such powerful stone walls. To beat them down, the warriors of the Middle Ages had a huge engine called a battering-ram to force an opening in the castle walls. It consisted of a great beam, or forest tree, with a head of iron, which was sometimes like a ram's head in shape, and was swung by a chain on a strong frame. The attacking party also at times dug their way under

the walls. But if a castle was strongly defended, the only sure way of capturing it was to lay siege to it and cut off its supplies, thus starving the people into submission.

Inside the castle

The area inside the castle walls sometimes covered several acres. Could we pass through the court-yard and enter the castle just as it was in the Middle Ages, we should not think it very comfortable or convenient, even though the one we have in mind was the very best in the country. The main room was an immense hall, where the lord, his family, his guests, and his retainers and servants, all ate together; and most of the servants slept here unless they slept in the stable. In the middle of the clay floor was a blazing fire, with an opening in the roof above to let out the smoke. At one end of the hall was a wooden platform, or dais, on which stood the table for the noble and his family.

INSIDE THE MAIN GATE OF THE CASTLE. A MINSTREL ENTERTAINING THE GATE-WATCH

The furniture and rooms

There were no glass windows, and the walls were bare and roughly plastered. The rude furniture was mostly built into its place so that it could not be moved. No one knew what it was to have a private room. Nor did rooms open into passageways, but into one another; so

that to get to a distant one, it was necessary to pass through several others.

120. The Hard, Rude Life of the Nobles.—It was a hard, rude life which even the nobles led in the tenth and

Fighting and war

THE CASTLE COURT-YARD. THE RETURN FROM A FORAY

eleventh centuries. Fighting was their chief business. They gloried in war and knew little of anything else. They cared nothing for books, and most of them could not even write their own names. If they were not fighting—but we must remember that petty warfare was nearly always going on—they spent their time in sports. Hunting and hawking were favorite occupations when

The life of the lord

the weather permitted; but in the long winter evenings they played chess for a pastime and listened with pleasure to the songs of minstrels, and no doubt quarrelled somewhat over their drinking cups. It was this lack of anything in time of peace to keep men busy at hard, honest work which has left the tradition that a country needs frequent wars to keep its men strong and manly. This may have been true in the Middle Ages, but it is not at all true in our times.

121. **Knighthood and the Knights.**—But the amusements they prized most of all were the tournament and the joust, which we shall understand better when we learn about knighthood and the knights.

Knighthood the flower of feudalism

From the latter part of the tenth century, it became the custom for the men of the higher social classes to fi[illegible] on horseback, although the common people continued to fight on foot. Out of the custom arose the word chivalry (*cheval* being the French word for horse), which is much like our word cavalry. The warrior who rode the horse was called a knight and belonged to a separate order called knighthood. This order has well been named the flower of feudalism, for it was the blossoming of the ruder virtues which made the life of the later centuries of feudalism endurable.

Ideals of the knights

The knights were men who, in those days of evil and violence, held lofty ideals and tried to keep alive the Christian faith. They were not perfect men; indeed, some of them were very wicked, and coarse, and cruel; but they were pledged to noble deeds, and many of them tried to keep their pledges. We shall now see how men became knights, and what they tried to do for the world.

At first any brave men could earn knighthood; but later on only those of noble birth could enjoy this honor. At seven years old, the boys of lesser nobles were sent to the castle of some great and powerful lord to begin their training for knighthood. Such a boy was the constant attendant of both his master and his mistress. He waited on them in the hall, followed them in the hunt, and served the lady in the bower and the lord in the camp.

The training of the page

A PART OF THE CEREMONY OF THE CONFERRING OF KNIGHTHOOD

He was taught the meaning of religion, love, and right living; and was trained not only in hunting and hawking, but also in such military exercises as carrying a shield and handling the lance.

Having served as a page until he was fourteen, he became a squire, and either at the same castle or at some other of his own choosing, he was taught to ride, to use his weapons, and to hunt; for a knight must be a good horseman, a good swordsman, and must be able to use his hawk in hunting.

The training of the squire

At twenty-one he was made a knight, by a ceremony which varied with different times and places but which from the twelfth century came to be chiefly religious.

The ceremony of making a squire a knight

For we must remember that the knight was not only a warrior; he was also a Christian, and one of his principal duties was to defend the church. On the evening before he was to be knighted the young man took a bath, during which two grave knights counselled him as to his knightly duties. After the bath two knights put on him a white shirt and a russet robe with long sleeves and a hermit's hood. Then in a gay procession he was led to the chapel, where wines and spices were served, after which he was left with a priest.

THE VIGIL AT ARMS

The rest of the night he passed in prayer. At daybreak mass was celebrated, and later in the day knights and squires took him to the castle hall. After his spurs had been fastened to his heels, the prince whose duty it was to knight him, girded on his sword, embraced him, and striking him three times on the shoulder with the flat blade of the sword, said, "Be thou a good knight." Then the company went to the chapel, where the new knight, laying his right hand upon the altar, promised to support and defend the church.

As a good knight, his vows bound him to obey and protect the church, to defend the weak and helpless, to be absolutely truthful, to be loyal to his chosen lady, and to defend all ladies of gentle birth. Men of that time did not realize that a true Christian knight should be

The vows of the knight

THE TRIAL GALLOP

the defender of all women, whether they were rich or poor. Still the ideals were high and fine, and have survived in the ideals of a gentleman of to-day. The days of true knighthood will never pass. Even yet we speak of men as chivalrous when they are like the knights of the Middle Ages in noble ideals.

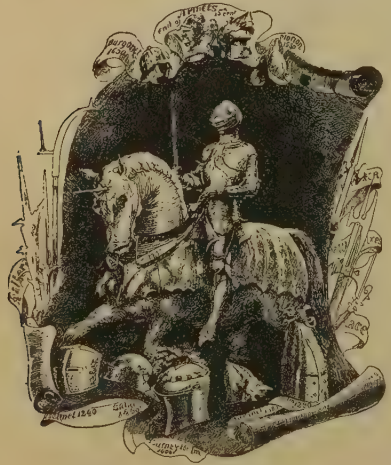
The knight, as we have seen, always fought on horseback. Both he and his horse were well protected by armor that was difficult to penetrate by the weapons in use in those days. He wore a plumed helmet, a shield, and a coat of mail; and for weapons of attack carried a sword and lance, and sometimes a battle-axe. When he went to war, a squire attended him as a body servant.

The armor and weapons of the knight

It was the duty of the squire to look after his master's horse and weapons, and to come to his assistance if he was wounded. In the course of time, the armor of the knight became so heavy that it required a strong horse to carry him.

The purpose of the joust and the tournament

122. The Joust and the Tournament.—After the squire had become a knight, he set about training himself for the jousts and tournaments, the great social events of that time. Jousts were contests between single combatants, while tournaments were more like mimic battles. They might be simple festal occasions, or serious trials of strength between hostile factions.



ARMOR OF 1440, SAID TO BE THE BEST PERIOD

We have seen that war was almost the only interest the nobles had. Accordingly, when real war was not in progress, mimic wars, or tournaments, were planned, such as Sir Walter Scott describes with graphic power in "Ivanhoe," and Tennyson in "Idylls of the King." These not only furnished interest and entertainment, but also the only military training to be had at that time. The noble who gave the tournament could judge from it which of the knights would be the ablest warriors, and the weak or clumsy were effectually weeded out.

Rules relating to tournaments

That the knights had high standards for themselves is shown by the rules relating to tournaments. Since

they were regarded as contests of honor, no knight could take part in one if he had ever committed a crime, offended a lady, broken his word, or taken an unfair advantage of an enemy in battle. In other words, the knight must be pure, courteous, truthful, and fair.

An imaginary visit to a tournament

Let us suppose that some great nobleman has proclaimed a tournament. Heralds have been sent far and near to summon the ablest knights, and foreign champions have been specially invited. Many knights and ladies arrive. They are lodged in the castle, in the neighboring town, or in tents under the trees in the meadows outside the castle. On the day of the combat the tents of the knights, and the lists—that is, the field of the fight—are decked with banners and coats of arms, and the galleries where the knights and the ladies, and sometimes even the King and Queen, sit are gay with hanging tapestries and gorgeous costumes. In the field are groups of knights and the judges. The horses, gaily decked with rich trappings, are champing their bits and prancing nervously, in their eagerness for the fray.

DISPOSITION OR LINE-UP OF KNIGHTS, AT ONE SIDE OF A TOURNEY FIELD, SHOWING FIGURE-HEADS ON TOP OF HELMETS

The mimic battle

The combatants are in two divisions, one at each end of the field. There may be hundreds of them. In fact they compose two small armies. The herald proclaims the rules of the combat, the opposing bands advance on horseback, each knight showing his lady's color, or device. Then the signal is given, and they charge forward amid excited cries and cheers from the gallery. Usually their weapons are blunt swords or lances, but the contest is very rough and sometimes many are killed. Each knight endeavors to knock his opponent from his horse or break his lance. The clang of armor, the clash of broken spears, the shouts of spectators, the waving of kerchiefs, all add to the intense excitement. Sometimes in the hottest part of the fight a strange knight, or a troop of knights all dressed alike, swoop from the crest of a neighboring hill and turn the tide of a battle.

THE ARMOR AND LANCE OF A KNIGHT OF 1550

A costly prize

When the victory is decided, a costly prize is awarded—jewels, armor, or a fine steed, and best of all, the praise of the victor's lady. In these mimic battles, of which there were many, the knights found their best opportunity to win glory for themselves and the approval of their ladies.

123. **What We Owe to Knighthood.**—After the use of gunpowder began in the fourteenth century, the

armored horseman lost much of the advantage he had enjoyed in battle over the man on foot, whose principal weapon was the bow and arrow, and little by little the influence of knighthood waned.

The knight and the German barbarian

This did not mean the loss of all the good which chivalry had brought, however. For the knight had the same keen sense of freedom, the same proud spirit, and the same love of war that belonged to the German barbarians before they left their forest homes; and when he vowed that he would obey and protect the church, that he would defend the weak and the helpless, that he would be loyal to his lord and to his chosen lady, and that he would always be brave and truthful, he was setting up a standard of conduct which would never be permitted to die. Some of the strongest ties that bind men together in their common work for the betterment of human life to-day reach back to the age of feudalism and knighthood.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. As there was no strong central governing power anywhere in western Europe, each community had to keep order for itself and protect itself against danger and violence just as it had to provide the food and other things needed for its daily life. 2. The rich land-owner was the most powerful man in any rural locality, and he became the ruler and law-giver of the people who lived on his land. He, as lord, gave them the use of his land, and they, as vassals, gave him, in return, some form of personal service. 3. The castle was both a fortress and a dwelling-place. 4. Knighthood was the flower of feudalism. The vows of the knight bound him to obey and protect the church, to be absolutely truthful, and to defend all ladies of gentle birth. 5. The great social events of

that time were the joust and the tournament. 6. Some of the strongest ties that bind men together in their common work for the betterment of human life to-day had their beginning in the days of feudalism and knighthood.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Explain why each community had to govern itself and supply itself with almost everything it needed for its daily life.

2. How was it that the rich land-owner came to be a ruler and law-giver?

3. Why was it that men greatly needed protection in those days? How did they get it?

4. Explain the relations between the lord and his vassal. Imagine yourself a lord and tell as clearly as you can what you have a right to expect from your vassal for protecting him.

5. Why did the lord need a castle? In an imaginary visit to one, describe it as it appears to you. Try to get a clear picture in your mind before you begin to tell what the picture is.

6. Now go inside the castle and tell what you see.

7. What can you tell about the life of the lord?

8. What was the page, and what were his duties?

9. What was the ceremony of making a squire a knight?

10. What were the vows of the knight? What were his armor and weapons?

11. What was the purpose of the joust and the tournament? Imagine yourself present at a tournament and picture what you see.

12. In what respects were the knights like the early German warriors? In what ways were the vassals like the body-guard of the German chief?

13. What do we owe to knighthood?

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CHAPTER XVI

VILLAGE LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

The lord and his vassals

124. The Lord and the Manor.—Having noted something of the life of the noble and the knight, we may now turn briefly to those who filled a humbler place among the people. As we have seen, in order that a powerful baron might get vassals to fight for him and attend his courts of justice, he granted estates for them

to use and govern. Each of these vassals—and they might be nobles and lords themselves—also gave portions of his estate, under similar conditions, to still other vassals. In other words, the same man might have a lord over him and vassals under him.

The manor and the serfs

The estate which a lord held under his control was called a manor (sometimes called a vill also). It was cut into two divisions. The first, which the lord kept for his own use, was called the domain. The second he turned over to serfs, who paid him for its use in part by working for him on his domain, and in part by giving him a portion of what they produced on the land which they cultivated for themselves. This land of the serfs was broken up into many parts, as a rule into long strips, a number of which, scattered about the manor, were allotted to each serf for his own use. In addition to the field which the serfs cultivated, they had the use of meadows, pastures, and woods for their pigs and cattle.

MANOR HOUSE IN SUFFOLK, ENGLAND

The serfs and the land

What the serfs gave the lord

While the serf did not own any of the land, yet the lord could not take it from him so long as he did as he had agreed. The terms of agreement varied with different estates. Those which the Abbot of Peterborough (England) made with his serfs will illustrate fairly well the ordinary relations which existed between a lord and his serfs. Every week in the year, except three, they were to work for him on the domain; and each was to give him annually a bushel of wheat, eighteen sheaves of

oats, three hens, one cock, and five eggs, besides tilling the lord's fields and gathering his harvest.

Some duties of the serfs

The serfs on any estate were to cut and haul wood for the fires in the lord's house, keep his castle and other buildings in repair, and perform all other labor that he needed to have done. The house in which the lord lived was called the manor house, if it was not a castle. It stood near the village where the serfs lived and in the midst of the farm lands.

FEEDING CHICKENS IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY, AS PICTURED IN AN OLD PSALTER

125. The Life of the Serfs.—

Their houses

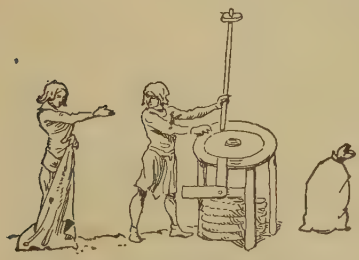
We can hardly realize how miserable these peasants were. Their houses were wretchedly built of timber covered with mud or thatch, and each had but one room, which was without windows. In the middle of the floor was a fire, and a hole in the roof above let out the smoke. The fire gave the only heat the shivering family had, and its smouldering embers the only light after nightfall. The peasant and his family went to bed on heaps of straw, in the clothes they had worn all day.

FEEDING PIGS IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY, AS PICTURED IN AN OLD MANUSCRIPT

Their food and drink

Their food was bad. The bread was "as dark as mud and as tough as shoe-leather." All winter long they were without vegetables or fresh food of any kind, even fresh meat; and as salt was very expensive, the hams and bacon were poorly preserved, and generally spoiled before the winter

was over. Honey and evaporated fruit juices were their only sweet, for sugar was costly. Their drink was water, home-brewed beer, or cider. There was no tea or coffee, and no strong drink except their own brew of beer. Tobacco was unknown. The cattle were as badly fed as the people, and were nothing but "skin and bone" and undersized.



GRINDING WITH A HAND-MILL IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY, AS PICTURED IN AN OLD MANUSCRIPT

Their dress

For dress, they wore a rough garment which left arms and legs uncovered, and which was tied with a rope around the waist. This they wore day and night. They were wholly uneducated. Very few knew even how to read; and as their life was hard and wretched, they were almost as savage and cruel as the wild beasts.

Their wretched condition

The English peasantry were badly off, but the condition of the serfs in France and Germany was even worse. For the nobles there were not held in check under a strong central government as nearly always in England, and were constantly at war. War commonly meant the burning of villages, the plundering of the little stores of provisions belonging to the serfs, and the inflicting of shocking personal injuries on them.

REAPING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY, AS PICTURED IN AN OLD PSALTER

The serfs as farmers

The serfs were not capable farmers. We should hardly expect them to be, considering how ignorant and mis-

Poor tools

erable they were. For one thing, they had poor tools. They had no iron ploughs, but only a sort of wooden hoe with which they dug into the earth. Their forks and rakes also were of wood. For weeding they had two sets of tools. In the moist ground, where the weeds came out easily, they used wooden tongs; but when the ground was hard and dry, they pushed the weed away from them with a forked stick, and then cut it off close to the ground with a sharp hook. They had axes and scythes also, saws, wheelbarrows, butter-churns, and so on; but we do not know how good these tools were.

THRESHING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY, AS PICTURED IN AN OLD PSALTER

PLOUGHING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY, AS PICTURED IN AN OLD PSALTER

126. Other People besides Serfs on the Manor. —There might be some freemen on the manor who held and used their land like serfs. There were also a few people who were better off than the laborers. These were not farmers, but they paid rent to the lord. Such were the priest, the miller, the blacksmith, and other craftsmen. Nearly everything used in the manor was made there, for in the early Middle Ages there was very little trading between villages.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The estate which a lord held under his control was called a manor and sometimes a vill. The part of the estate which the lord kept for his own use was called the domain. 2. The remainder

of the manor he turned over to serfs, who paid him for its use in part by working on his domain and in part by giving him a portion of what they produced on the land which they cultivated for themselves. 3. While the serf did not own any of the land, yet the lord could not take it from him so long as he did as he had agreed. 4. The condition of the serfs was wretched. 5. Nearly everything used in the manor was made there, for in the early Middle Ages there was very little trading between villages.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Explain again the relation between the lord and his vassal.

2. What was the manor? How was it divided? What was the domain?

3. What was the relation between the lord and the serf? What was the serf's relation to the land he used?

4. What was the difference between a serf and a vassal? Between a serf and a slave? Which do you think was better off?

5. Tell all you can about the houses, food, and drink, and the dress of the serfs.

6. What kind of tools did they use? What kind of farmers were they?

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CHAPTER XVII

TOWNS AND GUILDS IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Villages and towns

127. Towns.—When the German barbarians took control of the countries in western Europe, they lived mostly in villages. There is little doubt that up to the twelfth century the greater part of the people in England, Germany, and northern and central France lived in the country on the great estates belonging to feudal lords, abbots, and bishops. But in the latter half of the Middle Ages, as trade developed, the villages which clustered about the monastery, or rested under the pro-

tection of castle walls, and some which were located on the sea-coast, grew into towns and even cities.

Walls, gates, towers, and watchmen

On account of the continuous warfare of this period, it was found expedient, as in ancient times, to surround towns and small cities by massive walls, often eight to ten feet thick, and twenty-five to thirty feet high. As in the case of castles, just outside the wall there was a deep and broad moat or ditch. Opening on a few of the principal streets were strong gates with a tower on each side. At the principal gate was a castle where a garrison was kept, and on the roof of the gate-tower was stationed a watchman ready to blow a horn in warning if an enemy approached. Scattered here and there along the city wall were kept a few guards chosen from the citizens and relieved daily. Small towers, like little arsenals, stood about one hundred and twenty feet apart along the entire length of the wall.

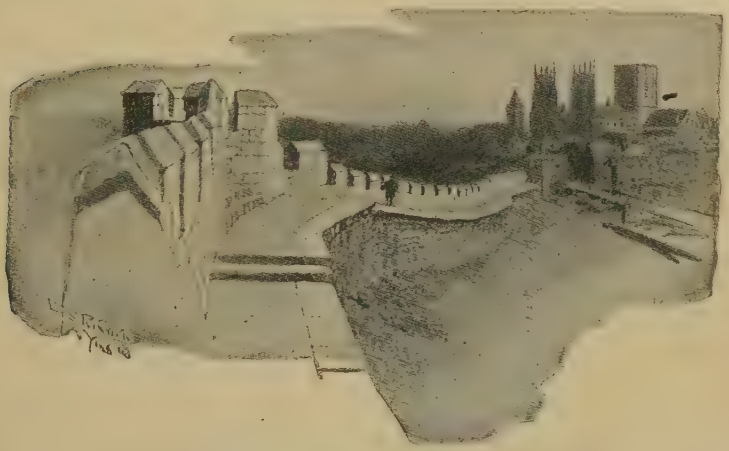
ONE OF THE OLD CITY GATES OF YORK, ENGLAND

The surroundings of the towns

Just outside the walls of these mediæval towns and cities were farming lands, beyond which extended the pastures, meadows, and woodlands belonging to the people in common. City herdsmen and field watchmen were appointed to drive the flocks out of the town to pasture and to stand guard during the day, for in these dark and dangerous times nothing was safe from the robber bands.

Entering a gate of one of these cities, we should pass through narrow streets, some of them little more than alleys, with the upper stories of the houses jutting out over the lower until they almost meet. Many of the towns were so crowded with houses that there were few

The streets and the houses



THE CITY WALLS OF YORK, ENGLAND

or no open spaces except the market-place. The walls of some of these cities, for example those of Chester, Carcassonne, and Rotenburg, are still standing as picturesque relics of the days of feudalism.

128. Guilds.—In our time, every man is his own master and free to live where he likes and to do what suits him best so long as he does not interfere with the rights of others. But in the early part of the Middle Ages, every town in western Europe belonged to some lord or to a monastery, just as did the manors. The people of the town had to pay heavy dues to the owner,

The town and its owner

and they had little trade with other towns. They made almost everything that they needed for themselves, and had little more freedom than the serfs on the farms.

Why the people demanded charters

When traders from distant countries began to come in, about the twelfth century, these towns-people wanted to exchange goods with them. They would give the articles they made in exchange for what the traders brought. This was difficult to manage, because the lords were so strict and so exacting. When the towns became strong enough, they revolted and demanded charters; that is, permission to carry on trade as they wished without the lord's meddling, and a written promise from the lord not to tax or fine them except at certain definite times and for certain definite sums of money. Usually they were given the right to govern themselves and to form trade guilds.

PHŒNIX TOWER AND A BIT OF THE OLD CITY WALL, CHESTER, ENGLAND

The merchants and artisans

These guilds were a very important part of the town life, and a necessary part at that time. The men engaged in trade were both merchants and artisans. All the goods were sold in the shops where they were made. The men felt it necessary that every one should have as good a chance as his neighbor to sell his wares, that competition should not lower prices, and that a

flood of new workers should not lower wages beyond a fair limit.

The rules of the guild

Accordingly, all the men engaged in a certain trade formed a corporation, or guild, and promised to obey certain rules. For instance, all the cobblers, or shoemakers, of a town would form one of these guilds, and choose officers from among themselves to see that the rules were obeyed. These rules stated, among other things, how many apprentices, or pupils, each shoemaker could have in his shop, and how long a time these apprentices must spend in learning the trade; at how high a price certain kinds of shoes should be sold; and how shoes must be made. The rules also provided that every pair of shoes must be thoroughly inspected before it was sold, and that disorderly and disobedient members of the guild should be punished. In joining the guild, the shoemakers (or goldsmiths, or whatever they might be) agreed to help any member if in trouble, and in case of his death to aid his widow and children.

BUTCHERS' GUILD HALL, HEREFORD, ENGLAND

The conditions of entering a guild

These guilds were not open to every one. No man could belong to one who had not spent years as an apprentice in learning the trade, and the number of apprentices was very limited. To be a goldsmith, an apprentice worked for ten years, and for other trades a shorter time. The apprentice lived in the house of his master and worked very hard, but was paid nothing, although

he was boarded and clothed. When he became a journeyman, he received wages, but was still obliged to work for his master. He could not go into business independently until he became a master-workman.

A privilege to belong to a guild

It was a great privilege to belong to a guild. Nobody was allowed to practice a trade who did not belong to one; and only the members of guilds took part in the government of the town. Often they came to be very wealthy, through their membership fees and fines and gifts from rich members. The members were very proud of their guild and of the privileges it brought to them. Some of the important ones persist in European cities to-day.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. On account of the continuous warfare of this period it was found expedient, as in ancient times, to surround towns and small cities by massive walls. 2. In the early part of the Middle Ages every town in western Europe belonged to some lord or to a monastery, just as did the manors. 3. When traders began to come in about the twelfth century the townspeople wanted to exchange goods with them. This was difficult to manage because the lords were so strict and exacting. 4. When, therefore, the towns became strong enough they demanded charters; that is, permission to carry on trade as they wished without the lord's meddling and a written promise from the lord not to tax or fine them except at certain definite times and for certain definite sums of money. Usually they were given the right to govern themselves and to form trade guilds. 4. All the men engaged in a certain trade formed a guild because they felt it necessary that every one should have as good a chance as his neighbor to sell his wares, that competition should not lower prices, and that a flood of new workers should not lower wages beyond a fair limit.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How were towns and cities protected, and why?
2. Who owned the towns?
3. Why did the people demand charters? What rights and privileges did the people secure through these charters?
4. What were the trade guilds and what were their rules?
5. Why was it a great privilege to belong to a guild?

CHAPTER XVIII

THE CHURCH, THE MONASTERY, AND THE MONKS

129. The Growing Power of the Christian Church.— We have just learned what a power feudalism was in the Middle Ages. Along with this institution and quite equal to it in importance was the Christian church. We have learned, also, how the Christians, in spite of bitter persecution by Rome, continued to grow in numbers and influence until, in the first quarter of the fourth century, the Emperor Constantine not only allowed them freedom of worship, but made Christianity a state religion. Constantine's successors went further. First they made it the only state religion and then the only religion of any sort that was allowed.

The Christian church in its early history

We might have expected that the overthrow of Rome by the Germans would put an end to the growth of Christianity. On the contrary, as the Roman government became weaker, the Christian church grew stronger, for its priests and bishops became the only protectors of the people against plunder and outrage. And when the Roman civil power was overthrown altogether, the

The growing power of the church

graded system of the church—Pope, bishops, priests, etc. —actually took the place of the destroyed civil government with its graded system of officials.

The Roman Catholic Church supreme in the Middle Ages

Thus when Rome could no longer hold together the parts of the empire, the only bond which prevented Europe from falling into hopeless and entirely separate fragments was the Christian faith. Then, just as Rome had been supreme in her days of splendor, so did the Roman Catholic Church become for a time supreme in the Middle Ages, not alone as a religious power but as a political power.

THE IONA MONASTERY BUILDINGS WHICH EXIST TO-DAY AND DATE FROM THE ELEVENTH CENTURY. THE CATHEDRAL DATES FROM THE THIRTEENTH TO THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

The Pope and the bishops

The head of the church was the Pope, who dwelt at Rome. Under him were many bishops, scattered throughout the Christian world, each controlling a district called a diocese. The principal church of each diocese was called a cathedral. The same system holds

to-day. But the institution by which the church did its great work in the Middle Ages was the monastery.

Hermits

130. How the Monasteries Began.—In early times, when there was so much fighting among nations, and no one lived in peace or safety, there were men who chose to dwell apart in some lonely place and there give their lives to holy thinking and prayer. In Egypt, where this practice began, men went singly into the desert and lived as hermits. There, they believed, with no one near to interrupt their thoughts, they would be free from all temptation and could make themselves more pleasing to God. Later on, however, men found that it was better to live in groups, for in this way they could not only support themselves more easily, and be independent of the outside world, but they could learn from each other and inspire each other to do nobler work. The men who formed groups of this kind were called monks, and the houses in which they lived were called monasteries.

INTERIOR OF IONA MONASTERY CATHEDRAL

Monks and monasteries

Monks first appeared in western Europe about the middle of the fourth century, and it was not long before monasteries spread all over the west. St. Patrick, of whom we have already spoken, is said to have introduced

Monasteries spread over western Europe

the monastery into Ireland. On Iona, a small island off the western coast of Scotland, his followers built a great monastery, one of the most famous of that day. Near it was also a nunnery. Before the beginning of the sixth century, there were in western Europe hundreds of monasteries and thousands of monks. For

ST. BENEDICT PERFORMING MIRACLES, AFTER THE PAINTING BY RUBENS

such large numbers of men to live and work successfully together, it was found necessary to organize them; that is, to have officers and also rules to govern them.

The abbot

131. St. Benedict's Rule.—With this need in view, one of the greatest leaders of the monks, St. Benedict, prepared his rule (about 526), which was generally followed in the west for four centuries. According to this, the abbot who governed the monastery was elected by the monks, who served a long period of probation before being admitted to the order. As their life was to be one of self-denial, they took three vows. They

The vows of the monks

promised that they would give up all their property, that they would never marry, and that they would obey the rules and regulations of the monastery. They must not only spend much time in prayer and thought, but they must work also.

The power of Cluny

132. **The Famous Cluny.**—Early in the tenth century, what afterward proved to be the most important monastery of that time, was established in Burgundy. This was the famous Cluny, whose monks followed a "rule" somewhat different from that of St. Benedict, though they wore the Benedictine habit. At first it had only twelve monks, but later it became a great power, with dependent monasteries in many places, all controlled by the abbot of the parent monastery. The first abbots of Cluny were very great men.

MONKS AT WORK IN THE MONASTERY KITCHEN

How the monks spent their time

The monks at Cluny were required to perform each day a certain amount of labor, like shelling beans and weeding in the gardens, though only enough to keep them humble and free from empty pride. Of the remainder of their time, the part not spent in religious exercises was to be given to reading, copying manuscripts, and singing.

Cluny as a centre of teaching

Cluny became a centre of teaching. The monks kept a school there for novices; that is, for boys who might later become monks. Very stern, strict teachers these monks were, not sparing the rod even for slight offences.

They looked carefully after the children's health also, as well as after their morals.

Hospitality and charity at Cluny

Hospitality and charity were cardinal duties, and were looked after by two important officers; one took charge of guests, and the other of wanderers and beggars. Every day, no matter how hard the times were, generous alms in money and food were given to the poor. So it came about that Cluny was beloved by the poor, just as it was courted by the rich and great. Other monasteries aided the poor also; but Cluny established the practice as a constant duty, never to be neglected.

The monk and the soldier

133. **The Dress of the Monks.**—It is not our purpose to follow the many orders of monks, nor to speak in detail of special monasteries. A brief general view will serve our purpose. As our glance turns back over the centuries of the Dark Ages and its chief figures pass before our eyes, the flowing black robe of the monk stands out in striking contrast to the gleaming armor of the soldier and the richly colored costume of the knight. But his sombre garb is suited to this man of holy vows, whom we shall find it interesting to follow as he moves quietly about in his field of service.

A MONK DRESSED IN THE WOOLLEN CASSOCK

Although his monastery might be wealthy, perhaps immensely so, the monk did not own any personal property. Even his garments

The cassock and the cowl

belonged to his order; that is, to his monastery. His clothes were coarse and plain, the principal garment being a long woollen cassock, white or black, but generally black, with long sleeves. Over this he wore a black

MELROSE ABBEY, ROXBURGHSHIRE, SCOTLAND. FOUNDED IN 1136 BY THE CISTERCIAN ORDER, SOMETIMES CALLED THE "WHITE MONKS"

mantle with a large hood, called a cowl, unless he was at work. When he was at work the cowl was replaced by a shorter sleeveless tunic, with a hood such as peasants wore. On his feet he wore sandals. Sometimes in cold weather shoes and stockings and warm cloaks were supplied, but quite as often the dress remained the same in winter as in summer. St. Benedict advised plenty of wholesome food, but in many monasteries the food was very light and scant.

The cloister and the buildings that surround it

134. **The Monastery Buildings.**—The monastery buildings were at first small, plain structures; and as there was no thought of providing comfort or privacy, the monks were crowded into as few rooms as possible. Later, as the monasteries grew in wealth, size, and importance, their abodes became much more pretentious. An open court, or cloister, with a garden surrounded by a shaded walk, formed the heart of the monastery; while the surroundings of the court might include cells for the monks, a chapel, a chapter house, work alcoves, the dining-room, a sitting-room, and quarters for the abbot and guests. As we should expect, the church was the most important part of the monastery, the grandest ones being cathedrals.

BOLTON PRIORY, YORKSHIRE, ENGLAND. FOUNDED IN 1120 BY THE AUGUSTINIAN ORDER. THE PRIOR WAS A GREAT FEUDAL DIGNITARY

135. The Sites of the Monasteries.—The sites of the monasteries varied greatly. Sometimes there was no choice of location, as the land was a gift; and again the monks purposely chose undesirable land, to give themselves employment in improving and reclaiming it for agriculture. Often the necessity of a retired and safe location forced them to take untilled soil. But many times, when circumstances were favorable, they were able to choose fertile grounds, with a stream and perhaps a fish-pond. There, year by year, the buildings of the monastery would rise—first the cloister and the church, then the abbot's lodge and other necessary buildings. These would be enclosed with a stone wall, and beneath this, as in other large estates, the cottages of laborers and servants would lie.

The growth of a monastery

A CONCERT IN THE MONASTERY

136. Occupations of the Monks.—The monks did great service in establishing farming on a dignified and intelligent basis. We are told that they were the first scientific farmers after the fall of Rome and the invasions of the barbarians. A great deal of land was reclaimed and made valuable by them, and dangerous swamps were drained. They kept live-stock, raised crops of all kinds, grew their own vegetables, made cider and

The monks as farmers

cheese, and often kept bees or bred horses. This sort of work was an important part of the life of the monastery.

The monastery often a great feudal estate

In later times, as you have learned, the monastery was often a great feudal estate. Besides farming, many other industries were carried on. The monks were the millers, carpenters, and masons, and in the early days they were their own cooks. They were the fine and careful artisans and craftsmen of the day, preserving the knowledge of handicrafts for more peaceful ages.

What the monks did

MONKS ENGAGED IN LITERARY WORK AND COPYING

And some were architects; also sometimes they made arms and musical instruments. They were the physicians of the community, studying and practising medicine. They studied music, painted, and did wood-carving and weaving. Besides this, they were also the teachers of the young, as we have seen at Cluny. In the midst of all this activity their religious duties were not forgotten, for they worshipped together seven times daily, one of their meetings being at midnight.

137. **The Monks' Service to the World in Copying Books.**—But their greatest service to the world, perhaps, was their work in copying books; for by doing this they preserved for us many works which would otherwise have been lost or destroyed.

The monks busy copying or writing books

In the large room called the scriptorium we may picture from ten to twenty of the younger monks writing at slanting desks. The novices are probably at work on missals, or service books, for the choir. The room is silent, for no talking is allowed. Presently we notice a keen-eyed, elderly monk, who is giving advice to a flaxen-haired boy, possibly about the color or design of an initial letter.

Separated from the main room are alcoves where the older and more skilful monks are busy with choicer manuscripts. They may be copying or they may be writing books of their own. These, of course, would be mainly religious. Others may be at work on a chronicle, for we must remember that it was the monks who preserved for us nearly all we know of the history of the Middle Ages. Each monastery kept its own record of current events.

The monks as writers of history

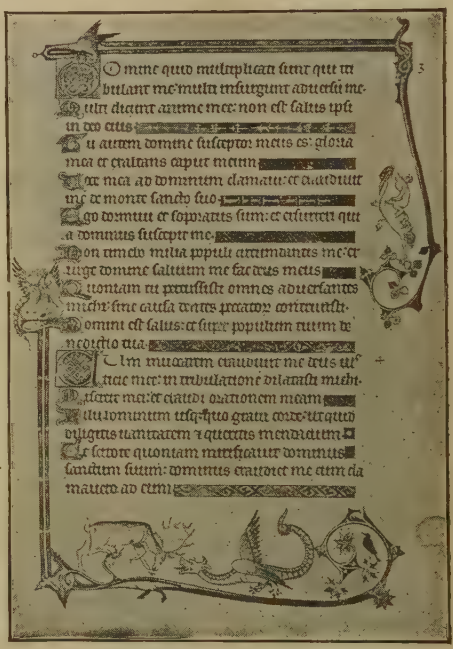
For centuries the monks were practically the only educated class. Nearly all English literature down to Chaucer's day (1340–1400) was written in monasteries, or at least by monks—mostly chronicles and religious works in prose and verse. Some of our finest hymns were written in monasteries.

The monks and literature

All the copying had to be done by hand and was very slow, painstaking work. It is not surprising, when we take into account the amount of copying done, that sometimes mistakes were made. The monks did not use the loose, careless hand which people write to-day. Each letter was most carefully formed. Black ink was used, though commonly the titles of the books were in red. Sometimes in the early Middle Ages costly manuscripts were written in gold or silver on parchment,

How the copying was done

tinted purple or yellow. But later on the capital letters alone were gilded in this way, and were made very artistic and graceful decorations of the page. Papyrus was used, to some extent, as by the Greeks and Romans; but later, vellum made from calfskin, and then parchment from lambskin, took its place.



A GREATLY REDUCED PAGE OF ILLUMINATED MS. OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

The monks preserve the Greek and Roman classics

We are told that few of the classics of Greek or Roman literature would have been left to us had not the monks collected, preserved, and copied them in such great numbers. We can hardly realize what a loss this would have been to the world. Some of the most beautiful and valuable work in copying was done by the Benedictine nuns, who excelled even the monks in skill and patience.

Education for a long time in the hands of monasteries

138. **The Monks as Teachers.**—For many centuries the only schools were those which the monks kept. Indeed, from the time of Charlemagne until about the eleventh century, education was entirely in the hands of the monasteries. When, about the eleventh century,

universities came to be founded, the higher education passed to them. But the monks still taught most of the elementary schools. These were not merely for boys who expected to become monks, but schools for boys of all classes in the community, the sons of knights

Schools for boys of all classes

FURNESS ABBEY, LANCASHIRE, ENGLAND. FOUNDED IN 1127 BY THE CISTERCIAN ORDER. THE ABBOT OF THE MONASTERY NOT ONLY POSSESSED JURISDICTION OVER THE MONKS, BUT GOVERNED THE PEOPLE OF THE REGION AS WELL

as well as the sons of serfs and freemen. Sometimes one monastery maintained several free schools. Thus they kept alive an interest in learning, which perhaps would otherwise have been lost.

The monks and their hospitals

139. **How the Monks Treated the Sick and Strangers.** —Part of the work done by the monasteries, as we have seen in the case of Cluny, was in establishing hospitals for sick people, just outside the walls of the monastery, or in the towns. In those days no such provision was made for the sick as we make in our own cities now;

though endowed hospitals and government charities were far from being unknown. So the monks built and supported hospitals, helped by gifts from wealthy people, and nursed the sick. It is hardly necessary to add that in this good work the nuns were of great assistance. In the eleventh century, an order of monks was founded which had as their chief aim the healing of the sick and suffering. They built hospitals in many places, and did a great deal of good.

The entertainment of strangers

One of the most important duties of the monks, as we saw at Cluny, was the entertainment of strangers. For this purpose, some of the best rooms of the monastery were especially designed. Guests of all ranks, knights and ladies, travelling priests or monks, minstrels, poor men and beggars, all were entertained with equal courtesy. No charge was made; but those who had money paid what they could afford. It was not considered courteous, as a rule, to stay more than two days and two nights, although the visit often lasted much longer. In each case one of the foremost monks was made the host.

The monastery a refuge for travellers

In lonely sections of the country, and among the mountains, the monasteries were the only refuge for travellers. No doubt the good monks were well paid for their hospitality by hearing from such wayfarers the news of the outside world. And no guest ever left these asylums without receiving some gift from the monks.

"The bell of the wanderers"

At a monastery in the midst of wild mountains in France, a bell was rung for two hours every evening, as a summons to travellers who might have lost their way. It was called "the bell of the wanderers." Along sea-

coasts, too, where there were dangerous rocks, the monks rang bells as signals to sailors, and were always ready to receive shipwrecked mariners. Some monks in Scotland placed a great bell on a dangerous rock, still called Bell Rock, so that the motion of the waves would ring it and warn ships away. In such ways as these the

FOUNTAINS ABBEY, YORKSHIRE, ENGLAND. FOUNDED IN 1132 BY THE CISTERCIAN ORDER

monks did great service to the people, and won love and loyalty to themselves and to their religion.

140. **The Monks Render Many Noble Services to Mankind.**—Thus we find that the monks did many noble services for mankind. By their tireless labor, deserts were made gardens, pestilent swamps became fertile farms, and labor gained a new dignity unknown in the days of Roman slavery.

The monks as teachers

The monks, by their missionary work, did much toward Christianizing western Europe. The monasteries became centres of learning and religion, of quiet work and

study, in the midst of dark and stormy times. Had not the monks made diligent search for the best books and copied them carefully, much of the great body of classical literature would have been lost. They furnished the only education which was to be had, and gave it to rich and poor alike.

The monks as builders

They were the charitable societies, the mainstay of the poor and the homeless, the healers of the sick, the willing hosts of weary travellers. They were the great builders, also; many of the great churches in Europe were the work of their hands. Although later on they lost much of their power and influence, we must not forget what great good they did among the people of a troubled world.

Love and the Christian religion

141. The Monks and Their High Christian Ideals.—They were faithful, earnest men, and in the work which they did for their times, and for the days that were to come, they put into practice the highest and finest ideals of Christianity. The pagan Greeks and Romans feared their gods; the Christian monk had a personal love for the one God whom he called his Father. He also believed that he could not love God without loving his fellow men. While to the pagan, religion had nothing to do with daily living, to the Christian monk a personal

True religion the practice of love

love for Christ could live only as it expressed itself in conduct and in service for others. As to him the central fact in Christianity was love, so true religion was the practice of love—love for the low as well as the high, for the weak as well as the strong, for the poor as well as the rich. Love rendered cheerful service to all alike, because in the sight of his Maker every

man was equal to every other in his rights as a moral being.

It is not denied that some among the many fell from the high ideals of their orders; but we are speaking of the holy aspirations, the self-sacrificing service, and the good works accomplished by the monks as a whole. They made Christianity a great moral power in the Middle Ages—a power which was altogether unknown to the Greeks and Romans, but which plays a large part in the modern life of to-day.

Christianity a great moral power

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. As the Roman Government became weaker the Christian Church grew stronger. Just as Rome had been supreme in her days of splendor, so did the Roman Catholic Church become for a time supreme in the Middle Ages, not alone as a religious power but also as a political power. 2. Monks first appeared in western Europe about the middle of the fourth century, and it was not long before monasteries spread all over the west. 3. As the life of the monks was to be one of self-denial, they vowed to be always poor, chaste, and obedient. 4. The monastery was often a great feudal estate. 5. The monks rendered a great service to the world in copying books. 6. Nearly all English literature down to Chaucer's day was written in monasteries, or at least by monks. 7. We are told that few of the classics of Greek or Roman literature would have been left to us had not the monks collected, preserved, and copied them in such great numbers. 8. Education was for a long time in the hands of monasteries, and by their missionary work the monks did much to Christianize Europe. 9. The monks were great builders also. Many of the great churches in Europe were the work of their hands. 10. They made Christianity a great moral power in the Middle Ages.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Explain how it was that the Roman Catholic Church came to be for a time supreme in the Middle Ages, not alone as a religious power but as a political power.

2. How did monasteries begin?

3. What was St. Benedict's rule? What were the vows of the monks?

4. Tell about hospitality and charity at the famous Cluny.

5. Imagine yourself on a visit to a monastery and describe the buildings and the surroundings of the monastery.

6. Visit a room where the monks are copying and give an account of what you see. How was the copying done?

7. In what way did the monks preserve for us the classics of Greek and Roman literature?

8. How did the monasteries help to make life better in the Middle Ages?

9. What great differences are there between Christianity and the religion of the Greeks and of the Romans?

CHAPTER XIX

THE CRUSADES

142. The Monks and the Knights in the Crusades.—While the work of Christianizing western Europe was carried on mainly by the monks, the church found another faithful ally in the knights. When a young man was knighted, you remember, the ceremony was largely a religious one, in which he pledged himself to defend the church and to champion the weak and helpless. In the great movement of the Crusades the church needed soldiers as well as monks, and knights and monks served side by side.

143. Pilgrims Go to the Holy Land.—To understand what the Crusades (wars of the cross) were, and how they came about, we must look back over a number of centuries. From the early days of Christianity, we find that it was the custom in all parts of Christian Europe for people to make journeys to the Holy Land, and worship where Christ had lived and died. In so doing, they thought, they were cleansed from all sin; and should they die in Palestine, or the Holy Land, they felt sure that they would go to heaven.

Suffering on the long journey

The long, tedious journey was made on foot, whether the pilgrim was rich or poor, many taking with them no money for their expenses, but trusting to charity for food.

Often they perished from hunger and sickness and lack of shelter. In order to protect them from exposure and save them from distress, many hospitals and asylums were built in lonely places by pious people.

The Turks in control of Jerusalem

144. **The Turks Get Control of Jerusalem.**—During the fifth and sixth centuries many thousand Europeans journeyed as pilgrims to Palestine. Some settled there

VIEW OF JERUSALEM, FROM AN OLD ENGRAVING

permanently, but most of them returned, bringing with them holy relics which were regarded with much veneration. In the seventh century the Arabs, who were Mohammedans, swept over Syria and got control of Jerusalem. But the pilgrims were not often molested by them, for the Arabs also believed that the city was sacred. In the eleventh century, however, Palestine was overrun by the Turks, a barbarous and fanatical people

from central Asia, who devoted themselves to plundering and destroying. By them the pilgrims were cruelly abused. Their sacred places were profaned, their worship was interrupted, and they themselves were insulted and sometimes massacred. All these hardships were reported by pilgrims returning to their homes.

The Turks abuse the pilgrims

Moreover, in their career of conquest, these fierce Turks came into conflict with the Greek (Eastern) Empire ruled from Constantinople. At a great battle fought in 1071, five years after William the Conqueror won England at the battle of Hastings, the Emperor Romanus IV was defeated and captured. Nearly all Asia Minor was overrun by the Turks, and so horribly devastated that a few year slater the crusading armies nearly starved to death in a wilderness of thorns and briers, in the heart of what had been the most fertile spot in the empire.

Later there was danger of the Turks capturing Constantinople itself, and the Emperor Alexius I sent letters to Pope Urban II at Rome, asking help. The Pope, you remember, had great power as head of the Christian church. These letters reached the Pope about the time when the people of western Europe were being stirred by the shocking news of Turkish cruelty and insolence in Jerusalem. So it was just the right moment to arouse deep enthusiasm for a movement which should have for its purpose the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre from the unbelieving Turks.

Alexius appeals to the Pope for help

The people stirred

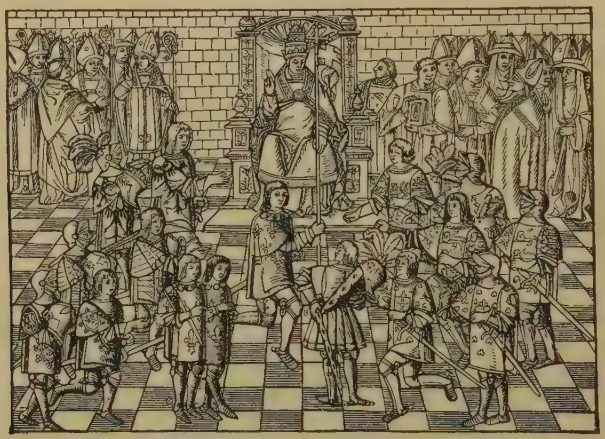
145. **Pope Urban's Eloquent Sermon.**—Pope Urban, therefore, at a great council which met at Clermont, in France (1095), preached a sermon on the subject. French and German bishops and princes had come to the meet-

A great throng of people

ing, and also a great throng of people—so many that no building could hold them, and the meeting had to be held in the open air.

The duty of Christians

Urban told of the abuses which the pilgrims at Jerusalem were enduring, and how the holy places were being profaned. It was the duty of the European Christians,



POPE URBAN II PRESIDING OVER THE COUNCIL OF CLERMONT IN 1095 AND CALLING THE CHRISTIAN PEOPLE TO THE FIRST CRUSADE FOR THE DELIVERANCE OF THE HOLY LAND, AFTER AN ENGRAVING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

who were brave fighters and whose ancestors had done brave deeds, to fight now for their religion. They were continually warring among themselves, he said; but here was something better worth struggling for. By uniting in this great cause they could win for themselves everlasting glory in heaven.

An appeal to soldiers of the cross

"Go, then," he continued, "on your errand of love, which will put out of sight all the ties that bind you to the spots which you have called your homes. Your

homes, in truth, they are not. For the Christian, all the world is exile, and all the world is at the same time his country. If you leave a rich patrimony here, a better patrimony awaits you in the Holy Land. They who die will enter the mansions of heaven, while the living shall pay their vows before the sepulchre of their Lord. You are soldiers of the cross; wear, then, on your breasts or on your shoulders, the blood-red sign of Him who died for the salvation of your souls."

The war-cry of the crusaders

When he had finished his speech, the people shouted "It is the will of God." "It is indeed the will of God!" exclaimed Urban. "Now make that your war-cry." Then he said, "No one need go against his will, but when one has vowed to go, let him not turn back until he has fulfilled his mission." Thousands immediately took the vow and received the sign of the cross.

Returning from this meeting, people carried the good news all through the land, and everywhere the new work for Christians was eagerly talked about.

Peter the Hermit

146. Peter the Hermit and His Followers.—In the north, Peter the Hermit at once began to win followers to go to the Holy Land. According to tradition, this small, dark man, with long white beard, barefoot and bareheaded, and dressed in a long frock with coarse hood, rode on a mule from town to town, preaching to the people about the need for a crusade. As he journeyed, eager followers trudged beside him. The people almost worshipped him. So great was their veneration that they believed even the hairs of his mule were sacred, and, what was of greater importance, thousands were won over by his earnest preaching.

Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless

Instead of waiting for the real armies with experienced soldiers which were to start later, a host of common people without training or supplies went forth in two separate bands. One of these, numbering about 15,000, left France under a knight called Walter the Penniless, in the spring of 1096. But many perished in Bulgaria, where they had vexed the natives by pillaging —having no money to buy food— and only the stragglers reached Constantinople. There they waited for Peter.

PETER THE HERMIT PREACHING TO HIS FOLLOWERS

Failure of Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless

Peter, meanwhile, with a so-called army of Germans, also had trouble in passing through Bulgaria and Hungary, and lost many of his men. The rest joined Walter at Constantinople in the summer of 1096. The two leaders, with the remnants of their bands, crossed over to Civitot, a coast city of Asia Minor. But here they were entrapped by the Turkish sultan, David, and only a few escaped to await the coming of the crusading armies. The rest were either massacred or captured, among those

who perished being Walter. Other bands started out in much the same way, but lost their lives on account of their lawless behavior, for they believed they had the privilege of plundering as they pleased.

147. The Crusaders and Their Motives.—In the autumn of 1096 Pope Urban probably sent a letter to Emperor Alexius, in which he told him that three hundred thousand crusaders would soon start from the West on their way to the Holy Land. Although we are told that the army actually contained one million men, the general belief now is that the number was very much smaller. But before this enthusiastic body begin their long journey eastward, let us pause for a moment to discuss their motives in setting out upon an expedition that gave promise of so much peril and suffering.

The first crusading army

As already noted, all agree that the leading motive was religious. There was a universal desire among Christians to reconquer the holy places, and rescue the sacred city from the desecrating hands of unbelievers. Moreover, each pilgrim believed, as has been stated, that a visit to the holy city would bring him a sure reward by removing his sins, and that should he lose his life while on the Crusades, all his sins would be forgiven and he would go to heaven.

The leading motive religious

Other motives were the love of adventure and of travel. These were especially strong in an age when each community heard or knew little of what was going on outside its narrow boundaries. And still other motives appealed to men's self-interests. There were merchants who sought trade, and princes and men of high rank who sought for new principalities or for other forms of power. But whatever their motives, all eagerly joined in a movement

Other motives

that aroused deep emotion and enthusiasm in all sorts and conditions of men.

The suffering of men and animals

148. The March of the Crusaders to Jerusalem.—The main armies set out in four sections. They were led by powerful nobles, mainly French and Norman. Most went overland by different routes, although some sailed from southern Italy. There was no one leader in command, nor any systematic provision for food. When marching, they kept no order, but straggled along, the leaders mounted on great horses. When fighting, the knights dressed in heavy armor. Many men and animals perished in the deserts, worn out by hardship and lack of food. Others died in camp of disease. Those who went by sea had an easier journey.

THE CRUSADERS BEFORE JERUSALEM

The crusaders reach Jerusalem

The four sections, or armies, met at Constantinople, but did not proceed at once to Jerusalem. The leaders were bent on conquering cities for themselves in Palestine. It was not until June, 1099, that they reached the holy

city. Of the host which left Europe, there remained only about twenty thousand, so many had perished on the way. When they came in sight of Jerusalem, they all fell upon their knees, and, with tears in their eyes, stooped to kiss the sacred soil.

149. The Siege and Capture of Jerusalem.—As Jerusalem was surrounded by a high wall, the crusaders were not strong enough to take it by storm. So they surrounded it as well as they could and began a siege. Thirst attacked them, and hunger. Close by was the little spring of Siloe, which bubbled up every second day. Men and animals, in their eagerness to get the water, crowded so hard that they trampled each other to death at its brink, and choked it with corpses. Finally ships came bringing food and saved them from famine.

Hunger and thirst attack the crusaders

While the leaders were doing little but quarrel with each other, it is said that Peter the Hermit had a dream, in which he was told, as he reported, that the city would fall if the army should march around it barefoot for nine days. At once they set to work to build siege-towers, without which they could not hope to take the city. Then the whole army set out to march around it, led by barefoot priests dressed in white and carrying crosses in their hands. As they marched they sang songs and uttered prayers, while the Saracens on the walls mocked them and abused the cross.

Peter the Hermit's dream

But of course this method of capturing the city did not succeed, and so the siege continued. It is said that when hope of victory had almost been given up, a horseman was seen on Mt. Olivet, waving a shield. "St. George the Martyr has come to help us!" cried one of the leaders.

The capture of Jerusalem

At this the men took new courage, and soon won the city (July, 1099).

Massacre of the Saracens

We should like to believe that Christian knights would show mercy to their captives, but this was not so. They treated the Saracens in Jerusalem, even the women and their babies, with the most shocking cruelty. So terrible was the massacre that we are told the streets ran deep in blood. There was only one leader, Count Raymond of Toulouse, who seemed to feel any pity. He set free the people who had fled to the Tower of David, and allowed them to leave the city.

VISION OF ST. GEORGE ON MT. OLIVET

Before the army dispersed, they elected one of their leaders, Godfrey of Boulogne, a great nobleman in what is now Luxembourg, to be ruler of Jerusalem, and called him Protector of the Holy Sepulchre.

Saladin captures Jerusalem

150. The Beginning of the Third Crusade.—The Second Crusade, fifty years later, accomplished nothing, and in less than a hundred years after Jerusalem was taken

by the Christians, it was captured (1187) by the great Saracen leader, Saladin. As soon as it fell into his hands, messengers were sent to report the fact to the people in the West. There was great grief in Europe over this sad news. The cardinals at Rome said that, if necessary, they themselves would go and win back the holy city. Pope Gregory VIII called upon the kings of Europe to cease their quarrels and join in a crusade. Every man in England was required to pay a heavy tax unless he marched to Jerusalem himself. This was the Third Crusade to the East.

GODFREY ENTERS JERUSALEM

Some leaders in the Third Crusade

The first ruler to start for Jerusalem was Frederick "Barbarossa" (Red-beard), the German emperor, seventy years old. He went by the overland route, but he died on the way. His army divided and went in different directions. It was in 1189 that Frederick started. Philip Augustus, King of France, and Richard, King of England, whom we have already noted as Richard the Lion-Heart, went the next year by sea.

Leopold angry with Richard

151. Richard the Lion-Heart in Trouble with Leopold and Philip.—Richard incurred the hatred of Duke Leopold of Austria almost as soon as he reached Asia Minor. When he arrived there, the Christian armies were besieging the city of Acre. It fell soon after, and Leopold, so the story goes, had set up his banner beside Richard's on the wall. Richard allowed it to be torn down and flung into the ditch. Leopold returned home at once, in great anger at Richard. We shall see how he took revenge.

RICHARD AND SALADIN IN BATTLE

Richard brave but not steady of purpose

Richard and Philip quarrelled constantly. At last Philip went home, but he left his army in Palestine. Its leaders opposed Richard in every way they could. Although not steady of purpose, he was a very brave warrior and a really good general. Once, it is said, he came on a party of Turks unawares and killed twenty of them. He had a brave enemy in Saladin, whom the Christians learned to respect very deeply. It is said that in a fierce battle between the two armies, Saladin heard that Richard had no horse. He at

once sent him two very fine Arab steeds, and Richard accepted them gratefully.

Richard goes home

152. Richard is Made a Prisoner.—Richard at last fell ill before he reached Jerusalem, and was obliged to go home. A treaty was therefore made with Saladin, by the terms of which the Christians were to have a strip of land along the coast of Syria, and the right to trade freely. They were also to be allowed to visit Jerusalem as much as they wished. Richard hoped to return to Palestine, but he was never able to do so.

The capture of Richard

His journey homeward was very eventful. He had managed to make bitter enemies of several of the most powerful leaders of the Crusade, and Leopold had had him put under the ban of the Holy Roman Empire as a traitor—that is, empowered any one in it to capture him and hold him for trial. When nearing Marseilles Richard heard that Raymond of Toulouse, a count of the empire, was planning to capture him there. To escape him he set off in a little private boat with twenty men. Some time later, however, a storm drove him on the Austrian shore and wrecked his boat. The Germans in turn were on the watch for him, and he had to hurry through the empire in disguise. But he was caught.

The story of the capture

The story is told that he stopped to dine at a little inn not far from Vienna. Not wishing any one to suspect his high rank, he broiled his own steak; but he forgot that on his finger was a costly ring. A servant of Duke Leopold came in, noticed the ring, and looked closer at its wearer. He soon recognized King Richard, and without saying a word hastened away to tell the Duke, who came in triumph and took Richard captive. This was

his revenge for the insult given him by the King at Acre, and the wrongs he pretended that the whole Christian cause had suffered at the King's hands.

Richard and Blondel

Richard's English subjects knew that he was in prison, but they did not know where. A beautiful story is told of how the minstrel Blondel set out to find him. Blondel wandered through Europe till he reached a castle where, people said, was held a captive whose name no one knew. Blondel's sweet music at once won him favor, and when he entered the castle he kept his eyes open to see if he could espy the captive. One day as he was keeping watch he heard a well-known voice singing a verse of a song which he and Richard had composed together long before this time, and which was known to them alone. It was the voice of the imprisoned King, who had seen Blondel from his tiny window. Blondel went away rejoicing, to carry the news of the King's whereabouts. But it was almost a year

BLONDEL HEARS THE VOICE OF RICHARD

GENERAL MAP OF THE CRUSADES
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400
First Crusade, 1096-1099
Second " 1147-1149
Third " 1189-1191 (Frederic Barbarossa)
The Political boundaries shown are those existing in 1190
10° Longitude East from Greenwich 20° 30° 40°
30°
40°
POLAND
RUSSIA
HUNGARY
BULGARIA
ROMANIA
EUXINE SEA
GOTHIA
Chersonese
GEORGISTAN
KM. OF KHILAT
Trapezus
Khilat
KINGDOM OF ICONIUM
EMPIRE OF CONSTANTINOPLE
Constantinople
Nicomedia
Nicene
Chalcedon
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Selymbria
Durazzo
Thessalonica
Larissa
Corinth
Athens
Negropont
Smyrna
Ephesus
Laodicea
Heraclea
Attalia
Iconium
Caesarea
Mareseia
Edessa
Tarsus
Selucia
Antioch
Hamath
Tripolis
Limesol
KM. OF CYPRUS
Rhodes
Candia
Damascus
Accon
Joppa
Ramla
Asekalon
Jerusalem
Alexandria
Cairo (Babylon)
EGYPTIAN DOMINIONS OF SALADIN
Ratisbon
Vienna
Buda
Pest
Belgrade
Danube R.
Save R.
Drave R.
Theiss R.
Bosnia
Ragusa
Spalatro
Sardica
Barbarossa 1189
Bavaria
Swabia
Burgundy
Kingdom of Arelat
Province of Arles
Marseilles
Genoa
Pisa
Florence
Ravenna
Venice
Milan
Verona
Adhemar
Paris
Croatia
Dalmatia
Kingdom of Hungary
Western Roman Empire
Corsica
Sardinia
Rome
Naples
Apulia
Bari
Brundisi
Otranto
The Normans
Bohemund
Sicily
Palermo
Messina
Calabria
Corfu
Tunis
Syracuse
Malta
Almohads
Mediterranean Sea
Godfrey
Baldwin I. 1100
Baldwin II. 1118
Baldwin III. 1148
Frederic Barbarossa
Conrad III.
Louis VII.
Conrad II.
Richard I. 1191
Philip Augustus 1191
Guy of Lusignan 1192
Boniface
Tancred
Bohemund
Godfrey
Baldwin
Raymond
Tatius
Stephen
Robert
Hugh
Duke of Normandy
Count of Flanders
Count of Blois
Count of Vermandois
Count of Toulouse
Duke of Lorraine
Duke of Burgundy
Count of Champagne
Count of Nevers
Count of Soissons
Count of Chartres
Count of Blois
Count of Vermandois
Count of Toulouse
Duke of Lorraine
Duke of Burgundy
Count of Champagne
Count of Nevers
Count of Soissons
Count of Chartres
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later before Richard was free to go to England, after being ransomed by his subjects.

153. **Loss of Life and Property in the Crusades.**—The third Crusade, like the first, resulted in great destruction of property and of men. As we have seen, according to some estimates nearly one million persons lost their lives in the first Crusade. Some believe that not less than five hundred thousand of the third Crusade failed to return to their homes. This, however, is only part of the story. There were eight Crusades in all, as they are commonly numbered, the last of which ended in 1270, nearly two hundred years after the first began (1095). It is safe to say that during those two centuries millions of lives and untold treasures were spent in the crusading expeditions to the East.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The leading motive of the Crusaders was religious. There was a universal desire among Christians to rescue the Holy Sepulchre from the unbelieving Turks. 2. The Crusaders captured Jerusalem in 1099, but Saladin conquered it about a hundred years later. 3. There were eight Crusades in all, the first of which began in 1095 and the last ended nearly two hundred years later (1270). 4. Millions of lives and untold treasures were spent in the crusading expeditions to the East.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Why did Pilgrims go to the Holy Land?
2. In what ways did the Turks abuse the Pilgrims?
3. What did Pope Urban mean by calling Christians soldiers of the cross?
4. Describe Peter the Hermit as he appeared when preaching to the people.
5. What were the motives of the Crusaders?

6. In what ways did men and animals suffer?
7. Who was Richard the Lion-Heart? Tell the story of his capture and of the way in which the minstrel Blondel found him in prison.
8. Tell what you can about the loss of life and property in the Crusades.
9. Are you locating on the map all the places mentioned in the text?

CHAPTER XX

RESULTS OF THE CRUSADES

154. The Love of Travel and the Growth of Trade.— The results of the Crusades were varied and far-reaching. The most marked of these at first were seen in a rapidly increasing fondness for travel and in the marvellous growth of trade. During the two hundred years that the Crusades lasted, great numbers of men who otherwise would not have left their homes travelled from the countries of western Europe to the Orient. There they saw cities, peoples, dress, houses, and customs that were all strange to them. Most of these men had known little of the great world outside the castle or village in which they had spent their lives, and great was their surprise to learn that the people of the East had knowledge of many things of which the West was ignorant. They were astonished to find in the cities of the East a civilization higher and finer than their own, and comforts and luxuries far exceeding those to which they were accustomed.

What the Crusaders learned in the East

The new experiences of travel awakened new tastes and a desire to possess at home luxuries enjoyed in the East. Hence an increasing trade in these things sprang up between the East and the West, which soon brought about many new conditions in Europe.

New tastes, new desires, and trade

A constant increase in the demand for ships and sailors

155. Italian Cities Profit by the Trade with the East. —At first the benefit of this trade was felt mainly in Italy. Italy did not take an active part in the fighting of the Crusades, for she sent no warriors to the East; but her cities furnished ships and transportation for Cru-

VENICE, WHICH PLAYED SUCH AN IMPORTANT PART IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMERCE

saders who went by water. Although at first the routes travelled were overland, later they were either partly or wholly by water. There was, therefore, a constant increase in the demand for ships and sailors, and this was met by stronger and larger ships manned by abler seamen. These were supplied mainly by Venice, Genoa, and other Italian cities, who exacted good pay for their services and thus made the Crusades a source of great profit.

From the ever-increasing trade of which we have just spoken, these cities acquired vast wealth. In time great merchant fleets sailed from Italy, carrying such Western products as grain, oil, honey, minerals, metal, soap, wool, cloth, leather, and furs. For the East, partly because many Crusaders had settled there, was much in need of these things. In Syria and Egypt the Western products were exchanged for silks, spices, perfumes, precious stones, hangings, rich cloths, carpets, rugs, porcelains, and other products which had been brought by caravans from India, Arabia, and Persia. Loaded with these goods, the merchant-ships made their way homeward across the Mediterranean. This was a perilous journey; for frequently the vessels were manned by unskilled seamen, and pirates were many and daring.

Western products and Eastern goods

156. The Growth of Commerce in Europe.—On reaching Italy the cargoes were stored in Venice and Genoa, whence eventually they were distributed throughout Europe. Overland routes led to important centres in France and Germany, where commerce was carried on at great fairs, held at fixed seasons. Here the importers sold to wholesale merchants. Retail trade went on in smaller places, although much of it was in the hands of peddlers, who carried their packs from village to village, as a rule travelling on foot, though sometimes on horses.

Overland routes and fairs

If we had been living in an English village at that time, we should probably have looked with some eagerness for the coming of the peddler. He liked well to arrive on Sunday or a saint's day, when the scattered villagers had gathered together for worship. After the service he would unstrap his pack outside the church, display its

The peddler and his pack

contents, and try to win buyers of his wares. In one of the manuscripts of those times we have pictures of what such a pack contained. There were gloves, a man's hat, a woman's kerchief, hose, a mirror, a woman's head-dress, a man's hood, a purse, a belt, a musical pipe, slippers, and other things. Having made his sales, the peddler would close his pack, slip it over his shoulder by a strap, and be off for the next place.

Trade in northern Europe

After a time water routes to the north were established. Merchant-ships ventured out of the Mediterranean into the Atlantic, and sailed around to northern Europe. Venice sent ships every year to England and the Netherlands, the latter country becoming the centre of this trade between the north and the south, with Bruges the chief city. Gradually, with the growth of manufactures, the north developed a large commerce of its own and sent its ships to the Mediterranean.

157. What Was Learned from the East and the Moors. —Along with articles of commerce, Venice brought from the East the art of making silk and glass, and began to manufacture them herself. Oriental dyes also were brought in, and probably the use of windmills was learned in the Orient. From the Moors in Spain was obtained a knowledge of gunpowder and artillery, as well as the art of making wine, stamped leather, fine steel armor, steel weapons, and other objects made of metal. These new industries all increased the volume and variety of the articles of trade. Men's ideas of commerce broadened, the field extended. Soon we recognize the beginnings of a world commerce which was to lead to momentous results.

158. The Breaking Down of Feudalism.—This growth of commerce brought about a great change which had already been begun by the Crusades. It was the breaking down of feudalism. How this happened, we need here explain only in a very general way. In France, for example, barons often sold their lands and their feudal rights and privileges in order to get money to pay the expense of the long and costly journey to the Holy Land. In this way they lost their power as lords in their own country. Many other barons and great land-owners were killed, and hence their landed possessions passed into other hands.

The barons and great land-owners lose their power

But what the feudal lords lost was gained by the King or by the people, who lived either in towns and cities or in villages on the great feudal estates. Moreover, with the increase in the growth of trade, the guilds and the towns-people insisted, as we have seen, upon having charters which would give them certain definite rights, ending at last in their freedom from the control of men who had practically owned the town. The serfs, also, shared in the advance of popular rights. For as there came to be more trade and more money as well, the serfs could pay for the use of the land in money rather than in personal service and in produce. Thus they became free laborers, and in time many came to own their own land.

What the feudal lords lost, the kings and the people gained

We have already spoken of the vast empire of Charlemagne, and of the fact that after his death this empire was broken into fragments, or separate kingdoms. But you should know that some of these were very large, and furnished the foundation for the building later of great nations, like France and Germany. For the kings of

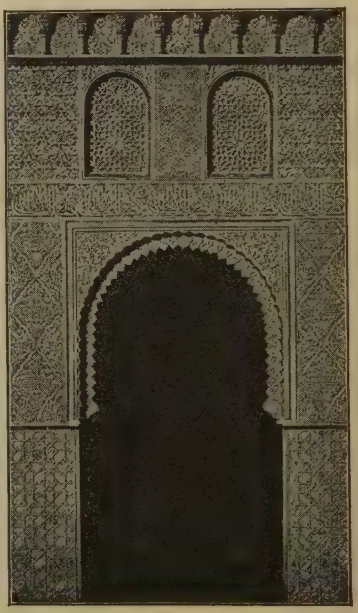
Increasing power of the kings

these several countries took into their own hands much of the governing power which in feudal times had been held by the owners of feudal estates.

Taxes take the place of personal service

With increase of trade and wealth the King could also get from his subjects money in the form of taxes, instead of the personal service which he had received in feudal days. With this money he could build up and keep in order roads and bridges necessary for commerce. He could support a standing army not only to fight for him and to defend his kingdom, but also to help maintain law and order and protect life and property. For this purpose the towns and cities gladly paid the government large sums, because their increasing trade and wealth needed that security and protection which only a strong central government could supply. And just as the standing army took the place of the feudal forces, so the national courts took the place of the feudal courts. Thus did feudalism give way, and modern states like France, Germany, England, Spain, and Portugal take its place.

Modern states take the place of feudalism



A DOOR-WAY IN THE ALHAMBRA. THE ALHAMBRA WAS THE FORTRESS PALACE OF THE MOORISH KINGS AT GRANADA, SPAIN

159. **The Revival of Learning.**—Still another result of the Crusades, brought about largely by changes in com-

merce and government, was the revival of learning. At no time during the Dark Ages had the light of ancient learning utterly failed. The monks, you remember, had done what they could to keep it burning, and in some places schools had been kept up. But in general the knowledge of the Greeks and Romans had been forgotten in the ignorance, poverty, disorder, and absorption in fighting which pervaded the Dark Ages.

The knowledge of the Greeks and the Romans forgotten

Now, however, a rapid change was going on. The better order and leisure to think, the growth of commerce, of towns, of new industries, the knowledge of other lands and their arts of living, stimulated thought and the love of travel, and there was a keen desire to recover, or revive, all that had been lost. This the Crusades helped directly to do, for they brought back from the East not only luxuries and comforts, but knowledge and ideas that lifted men to higher living and thinking.

The Crusades and the revival of learning

At the time the Crusaders were coming into touch with the cities of the East, many of which contained a half-million people each, the Arabian civilization was the highest in the world. Of this we probably get the general atmosphere in the life pictures of the "Arabian Nights." We should bear in mind, however, that the people among whom this civilization flourished included more than those living on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean. For they had spread over the whole coast of northern Africa and nearly all Spain, though in the time of the Crusades they had been driven out of the northern part of Spain. Not only was their commerce extensive, for their caravans went to many countries, and ships carried their merchandise to all parts of the

Where the Arabian civilization flourished

world as it was known at that time, but the arts flourished as well. They had beautiful architecture, which included splendid mosques and palaces. No people has ever excelled them in their fine metal work or in the making of fine fabrics.

Universities, libraries, and Greek science

Moreover, their method of cultivating the land was scientific and their system of irrigation was good. Their learning, also, was advanced. One of their large universities, we are told, was attended by twelve thousand students. They also had libraries, some of them containing several hundred thousand volumes. In their conquest of much of the Greek Empire they became acquainted with the works of the Greeks and studied earnestly Greek science; and they added ideas of their own to what they learned.

GALLERY OF THE COURT OF LIONS, THE ALHAMBRA

The great service of the Arabs to the world

Thus while Europe was passing through the Dark Ages, with no knowledge of the science of the Greeks, this knowledge was being preserved and advanced by the Arabs, who were to give it back again to the West. This was their great service

to the world. They did not invent many new ways of doing things, but by preserving, improving, and handing down to those who should follow them the knowledge and the arts and sciences which they had learned from other peoples, especially the Greeks, they did their most important work.

A rebirth of learning

When the quickening life of the West, therefore, turned to the study of ancient works, interest centred not only in those of the Romans, but of the Greeks as well. This great awakening had its beginning in Italy, where the old learning had never really died out, and where the wealth and independence of the cities gave the new movement great power. It ushered in a period of literature, art, and science, which was one of the most brilliant the world has known; for it was not only a revival of pagan learning, but a rebirth, as it was called, of learning in the Christian world.

The Crusades and great changes

160. The Crusades a Turning-Point in History.—All these changes—the enlargement of commerce, the growth of towns, the breaking down of feudalism, the building up of modern nations with strong central governments, the revival of learning—were not created by the Crusades nor completed by them; but the Crusades gave a wonderful impulse to changes already begun and greatly hastened their progress.

The beginning of modern life

They were a great common movement affecting all Europe, and were shared in by all nations and by people of every rank. With the Crusades the period of isolation largely passed away. All peoples were moved by similar motives, desires, hopes, and interests, and there was brought about such a unity in the Christian world as had

not before existed. With the growth of common interests and national feeling, modern life had begun. The Crusades were therefore a turning-point in history.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Two marked results of the Crusades were seen in a rapidly increasing fondness for travel and in the marvellous growth of trade. 2. Venice, Genoa, and other Italian cities acquired vast wealth from this trade with the East. 3. The growth in commerce brought about the breaking down of feudalism. 4. Another result of the Crusades was the revival of learning. 5. With the growth of common interests and national feeling which were developed by the Crusades modern life began. Hence the Crusades were a turning-point in history.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Be sure that you know clearly what were the two most marked results of the Crusades.

2. Do you understand why there came to be an ever-increasing trade between Europe and the East?

3. Tell what you can about the following: Overland routes; fairs; the peddler and his pack; trade in northern Europe.

4. What was learned from the East and from the Moors?

5. In what ways did the growth of commerce help to break down feudalism?

6. What is meant by the revival of learning?

7. What was the great service of the Arabs to the world?

8. Can you tell in your own language in what ways the Crusades were a turning-point in history?

CHAPTER XXI

COLUMBUS AND THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

161. The Love of Travel.—We have already referred to love of travel as one of the marked results of the Crusades. It was due in part to the wide spread of commerce and in part to the general awakening of people's minds through the revival of learning. Men became specially eager to know more of the Far East and to profit by its riches. Even before the Crusades ended, European travellers began to make extensive explorations in Asia.

Marco Polo in China

162. Marco Polo and His Travels.—The most famous to us of these travellers was Marco Polo, a Venetian, though there were many others nearly as well known at the time. Toward the end of the thirteenth century, he went with his father and uncle—who had been merchants of Venice, but had been driven by accident to live in China—to the court of Kublai Khan, the ruler of the Mongols at Peking. While there, Marco learned the languages of the empire, and the Khan, taking him into his service, sent him on many important missions through China and other parts of Asia.

MARCO POLO

The homeward route of the Polos

After dwelling seventeen years with the Mongols, the Polos started for home. Putting to sea at a port near

Peking, they sailed south to Sumatra, past southern India and up the Persian Gulf to the Euphrates River, and thence overland on their way to Venice. A few years after his return, Marco Polo gave to the world an account of his travels and of what he had heard of the countries and islands of the Far East. Wonderful were his tales of golden palaces, of beautiful rivers crossed by marble bridges, and of countless treasures of gold, silver, and jewels. Although much that he said was mistaken, and the whole added little or nothing to men's knowledge of geography, yet, with what other travellers wrote, it increased the interest in those distant lands.

Marco Polo's accounts of his travels

The three trade routes

163. The Trade Routes of Genoa and Venice with the East.—The glowing and romantic accounts of the East appealed to men not only because of their novelty, but because of the wealth which merchants were heaping up from extensive trade with that region. This trade was carried on mainly over three routes: one through the Caspian Sea, the Black Sea, and Constantinople; another through the Persian Gulf and the Euphrates valley to Antioch; and a third through the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea. All these routes by which goods were brought from India, China, Japan, and other Oriental countries led to Genoa and Venice, the two great rivals in the commerce of western Europe.

Why caravans were necessary

The overland part of the journey was made by caravans. Many traders would band together to protect themselves from robbers, and to help one another in getting such necessaries as provisions and water. This was done because for long distances there were no settled

governments or none strong enough to protect travellers, no roads, and no inns to afford shelter.

Even now in western Asia merchandise is carried largely by caravans. Camels are generally used to transport heavy goods, especially when the route stretches over very dry, level, and sandy regions. The camels, which

The caravans

A SECTION OF A CARAVAN. THE CAMELS HAVE BEEN UNLOADED AND ARE RESTING

in a single caravan number from forty to one thousand, walk in single file, forty or more harnessed together, ropes made of hair connecting one beast with another. The leader wears bells, and is gayly decked with trappings and tassels of various colors, while in advance of the long line walks an unladen ass, either for good-luck or as a guide. If the pathway is steep and rocky, mules and asses are used instead of camels to carry the burdens.

164. The Great Commercial Problem.—At the best, these routes were always costly and dangerous; but when in 1453 the Turks captured Constantinople, the route through the Black Sea was cut off altogether. This

The Turks and the overland routes

was a great blow to Genoa, for she depended almost wholly on the northern route, and at once her commerce began to fall off. Venice, more fortunate than Genoa, still received goods by the southern route through Egypt, and reached the height of her commercial power. As the Turks extended their sway over western Asia, the other overland routes were threatened, and even the Mediterranean was made unsafe by Turkish pirates.

Portugal and Spain seek the ocean route

This all happened at a time when there was an increasing demand for Eastern goods, and the rising nations of Europe were most eager for a share in the trade. The great commercial problem, then, was to find an ocean route to India, China, and Japan, and thus escape the dangers of the overland traffic. Portugal and Spain, being the most powerful maritime nations of that time, naturally took the lead in the search for this all-water route; and Prince Henry of Portugal, now called "The Navigator," did more than any other man, perhaps, to further the movement.

Belief of eminent geographers

165. Prince Henry and the All-Water Route.—Portuguese sea-captains had already, in their encounters with the Moors, begun to make some headway down the western coast of Africa, and Prince Henry set in motion means which would encourage them to venture farther. For it was the belief of many that India could be reached in this way, although some eminent geographers thought that Africa extended so far to the south that it was impossible to reach Asia by sailing in that direction. But no one could be certain until the trial was made, and in that day it required much faith and courage to put the matter to the test.

Why sailors feared to venture on the Sea of Darkness

Sailors were afraid to venture out into the "Sea of Darkness," as the Atlantic was called. They believed that in it were terrible monsters waiting to devour them; that in the region of the equator was a belt of fire, and that the water there was steaming hot. But Prince Henry undertook the task of finding out all that was possible about these unknown regions. He started a school, where he gathered about him able teachers and seamen who wished to learn the art of navigation. He also sent out captain after captain, each of whom ventured a little farther than those who had gone before.

PRINCE HENRY

Slow progress

All of these men were moved by Prince Henry's daring spirit, but the progress was slow. At the time of his death, 1463, only about one-fourth of the distance to the southern coast of Africa had been explored. But even though that wise and noble prince did not win the prize he sought, those who came after him profited by his labors.

A stormy voyage

166. The Famous Voyage of Diaz.—The man who finally reached the most southern point of Africa was Bartholomew Diaz. In August, 1486, he started out on a voyage which was to make him famous. After sailing nearly four hundred miles south of the tropic of Capricorn, his vessels were blown by heavy winds steadily southward for thirteen days, during which he saw no land. At the end of this time he sailed directly eastward, expecting, of course, that he would reach the coast. But, since he was south of the most southern point of Africa, this did not happen.

The return to Lisbon

He therefore steered his course northward, and came to a landing more than two hundred miles east of the Cape of Good Hope. From that point he sailed about four hundred miles farther east, when his men stub-

VESSELS OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

bornly refused to continue the voyage. He was obliged, therefore, to turn homeward. On his way back to Lisbon, which he reached in December, 1487, he saw the head-

The Cape of Good Hope

land of southern Africa. This he called the Cape of Storms; but the King was so pleased with the good news of the discovery that he said, "It shall be called not the Cape of Storms, but the Cape of Good Hope." And he was right, for the promise of the opening of an all-water route filled the Portuguese with "good hope" for the future.

Spain in search of the ocean route

167. Columbus and His Plans.—But Portugal was not alone in the search for an ocean route to India, China, and Japan. Spain, as we have already said, was also seeking the same goal, and the man through whom she achieved success was Christopher Columbus.

Columbus at Lisbon

Let us acquaint ourselves with him more closely and follow some of his adventures. He was an Italian, born in Genoa. After he had followed the sea from boyhood and become a distinguished mariner and sea-fighter, we find him at the age of thirty-five or thereabouts in Lisbon, where he was then making his home. Here lived his brother Bartholomew, who had been with Diaz on his famous voyage of discovery, and here were many sailors also. From them he must have learned about the voyages which the Portuguese had been making in their attempt to round the southern point of Africa; indeed, some believe that he may have been on some of these voyages himself.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

His plan of reaching India by water

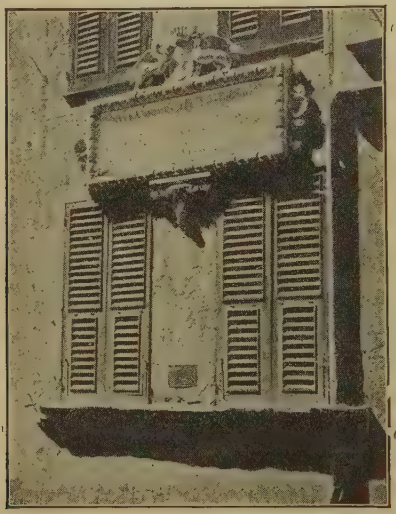
But Columbus felt sure that there was a shorter way to India than the route around Africa. It had already become known that there was water to the east of Asia; and since there was water to the west of Europe, and the earth was round, which he believed with many geographers of his day, he reasoned that by sailing directly across the Atlantic Ocean he could reach India. The more he pondered over this scheme, the more he longed to carry it out. At length he laid his plan before King John of Portugal. The King listened, but would not agree to give aid.

Columbus seeks a hearing

Having failed to gain support from the King of Portugal, Columbus started for the court of Spain. He found it no easy matter to get a hearing, however; for the King and Queen, Ferdinand and Isabella, were engaged in war with the Moors, whom they were driving out of Spain.

The war between the Spaniards and the Moors

This war had been going on at intervals for centuries. Spain had been so occupied with it that she had taken no part in the Crusades. It was, in fact, a crusade within her own borders, for the Moors were a part of the great Mohammedan world to which the Arabians and Turks also belonged. They had the same high civilization and culture as the Arabians, and a powerful government. But the Spaniards at last captured their beautiful city of Granada and defeated them in battle.



TABLET MARKING THE HOUSE IN GENOA WHERE CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS WAS BORN

A little more than a century later, under Philip II, of whom we shall hear again, the Moors were driven out of Spain. The Spaniards believed they were ridding the country of heathen hordes; but in driving out the Moors, who were more highly civilized than themselves, they lost much of their prosperity and glory, which they have never since regained.

The Moors driven out of Spain

Columbus gets a hearing

168. Columbus Gets an Opportunity to Carry Out His Plan.—When at length Columbus obtained the hearing which he had patiently sought for seven long years, the King and Queen still kept him waiting for an answer. Some of their advisers reported unfavorably, while others reported the scheme as perfectly sound. Ferdinand

was absorbed in the war. But Isabella was interested because it was the purpose of Columbus to devote the wealth he should obtain to a great crusade to the Holy Land, and this was to be made in the name of Spain. When the war drew to a close, Columbus was given

COLUMBUS AT THE COURT OF KING FERDINAND AND QUEEN ISABELLA

another hearing. But he demanded so much for his services as leader of the expedition that no agreement was reached. Much displeased, he left the Queen's presence, and in despair started off to seek aid in France.

Columbus is promised men and vessels

On his way out of the country he stopped at the Convent of St. Mary, and there talked over his plans with the prior. The prior was so deeply impressed that he wrote at once to Queen Isabella, with whom he had influence, and she summoned Columbus back to court. This time she promised men and vessels for the expedi-

tion. At last he was to have an opportunity to carry out the plan which he had cherished for so many years.

How Columbus looked

History tells us that Columbus at that time was a fine-looking man —tall, strong, and well formed. He had a noble face, with keen blue eyes. His hair, already white, fell in long locks about his shoulders; and although plainly dressed, his courteous manner made him pleasing to all whom he met.

THE CONVENT OF ST. MARY, NEAR PALOS, WHERE COLUMBUS STOPPED

The Northmen voyage westward

169. The Voyages of the Northmen.—Before taking up the story of this voyage, let us pause to notice some other voyages that had already been made across the Atlantic far to the north. Long before this time, probably in the tenth or eleventh century, when the Vikings were attacking England, other Northmen had voyaged westward. Hardy sailors from Norway came at that time to Iceland and Greenland.

ROOM OCCUPIED BY COLUMBUS IN THE CONVENT OF ST. MARY

PINTA SANTA MARIA NIÑA

REPRODUCTIONS OF THE VESSELS OF COLUMBUS'S FLEET AS THEY APPEARED IN NEW YORK WATERS DURING THE COLUMBIAN CELEBRATION OF 1892

Leif Ericsson on the coast of Labrador

Some of these daring explorers reached America. The first was Leif Ericsson, who, in the year 1000, with five hundred and thirty men, touched upon the coast of Labrador. The chronicles of Iceland call the country Vinland, from the wine his company was said to have made there. In the spring he went back to Greenland with a load of timber.

Leif's brother in Vinland

The following year Leif's brother sailed to Vinland, where he passed two winters. In later years other Northmen visited the coast, but none remained long, for the natives were unfriendly and attacked them. Vinland, therefore, was soon forgotten.

The Northmen's discovery not important

This discovery was not important, for no colony was planted and no attempt made to follow up the discovery. Besides, Vinland was supposed to be an island off in the unknown northern sea; and when Columbus set sail on his first great voyage of discovery, no one thought of that island any more than of any other lost island thousands of miles away.

The sailors afraid to go

170. **The Trials of Columbus.**—Returning to the story of Columbus, we find that in his struggle to gain the support of the Queen, and even when he was ready to sail, his trials had only begun; for the sailors were afraid to go, and it was difficult to find a company of men who would venture on the Sea of Darkness out of sight of land.

The three vessels

In course of time, however, three small vessels with one hundred and twenty men were ready to start. The vessels were not larger than many of the fishing-boats of today. The **flagship** was called the *Santa Maria*, and the other two were the *Pinta* and the *Niña*.

A half-hour before sunrise on Friday morning, August 3, 1492, the little fleet sailed from the port of Palos. It was a sorrowful time for the poor sailors and their friends. All believed that the vessels would certainly be lost and

A sorrowful time

DEPARTURE OF COLUMBUS FROM PALOS

that the sailors would never again see home and friends. When, on September 6, they were out of sight of land, the sailors wept like children.

Fears chased each other in quick succession. The ships had not sailed far before the compass needle no longer pointed to the north star. This distressed the sailors. A few days later they entered a vast stretch of sea-weed. On every side, almost as far as the eye could reach, the water was covered with a green carpet of weeds and grass. They feared the vessels would stick fast in this grass, or run upon rocks lying just below the surface of the sea, and that they themselves would be shipwrecked. But the wind blew up a little stronger, and the vessels passed on in safety.

Fears chase each other

Columbus's life in danger

This danger over, others loomed up. They entered the belt of trade winds which blew them steadily westward. "We are lost!" the sailors cried. "We can never see our friends again." They begged Columbus to turn about and steer for home. He refused. They became angry. They called him crazy and threatened his life. It was planned to push him overboard some night when he was looking at the stars. Columbus knew that his life was in danger; but the greater the peril, the more firmly he set himself to meet it with a strong will and high purpose.

The landing of Columbus

171. **The Discovery of Land.**—At length, after ten weeks of weary sailing, about two o'clock on the morning of October 12, land was sighted not far away. This was an island of the Bahama group. Early in the morning boats were lowered and everybody went ashore. Columbus, dressed in a rich robe of bright scarlet, bore aloft the royal standard. Upon reaching the shore, he knelt, kissed the earth, gave thanks to God for the safe voyage, and took possession of the land in the name of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella.

Columbus thinks he is in the East Indies

Columbus called the island on which he landed San Salvador, which means Holy Saviour. Continuing his voyage, he sailed along the coast of Cuba and Hayti. He thought this was Japan and the East Indies, and was therefore on the lookout for the cities where he expected to find the gold, spices, and precious stones which he so eagerly sought. He called the natives Indians, or the people of the Indies.

The people welcome Columbus

172. **Columbus Returns to Spain.**—Having built a small fort on the island which he named Hispaniola

(Hayti), he left there forty men as the first Spanish colony in the New World, and sailed for Spain. After a stormy voyage, he cast anchor in the harbor of Palos about the middle of March, 1493. Great was the joy

COLUMBUS TAKING POSSESSION OF THE LAND IN THE NAME OF KING FERDINAND AND QUEEN ISABELLA

of the people that day. They stopped all business to give their welcome to the man who had won success for himself and Spain. His praise was now on every man's lips.

The "idle dreamer" now a great man

He was summoned to Barcelona to attend the court. When he entered the presence of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, they honored him by rising, and when he knelt to kiss their hands, they commanded him to rise and sit with them as an equal. The "idle dreamer" was now one of the great men of Spain. Everybody

was eager to share his honor and his fame. There was no longer any difficulty in getting men to join him, for all imagined that they would return with great wealth.

THE TRIUMPHAL ENTRY OF COLUMBUS INTO BARCELONA

Columbus plans to found a colony

173. Columbus Makes a Second Voyage.—When he sailed again, in September, 1493, he had with him a fleet of seventeen vessels and fifteen hundred men, including many from the best families in Spain. As Columbus planned to found a colony, he took with him on this expedition not only horses, mules, and cattle, but vines, vegetables, and many kinds of seeds.

His first colony lost

He expected to find the men he had left the winter before in Hispaniola; but on reaching the place where the

colony had been, there was no one to welcome him. Not one of the forty men remained; the fort had been torn down and the remnant of food destroyed.

Columbus in trouble

A new site was chosen for settlement, and a little town, called Isabella in honor of the Queen, was built and surrounded with a wall. After a time Columbus started out to explore the new country. But trouble met him on every hand. The Indians were not always friendly, and his own men were often unwilling to obey him. At the end of three years he sailed back to Spain, leaving the settlement in a wretched condition. The voyage was a long and trying one. All the food on board was used up, and he and his men were almost starved when at last they reached home. Columbus received a kindly welcome at court, and was told that he should have more ships for another voyage. But enthusiasm had died out, and other things caused delay.

Columbus coasts along the north shore of South America

174. **The Third Voyage.**—It was not until 1498 that he set sail on the third voyage. This time he landed on an island which he called Trinidad, and coasted along the northern shore of South America. But when he returned to the little town he had built on his preceding voyage he found things were going badly. Trouble had arisen with the Indians and more serious difficulties among the settlers themselves.

Many people lose faith in Columbus

For two long years Columbus tried to make things right, but he was not successful. Many people were beginning to lose faith in him, because they did not get the wealth they had supposed they would find by joining in his expeditions. Others were jealous of him and made plans for his ruin.

"Admiral of Mosquito Land"

Meantime Vasco da Gama, of whom we shall speak later, had returned from his famous voyage to India with some of the real wealth of the Far East. He had sailed under the Portuguese flag and had succeeded in getting what the Spaniards sought. To their minds Columbus had miserably failed, and they called him the "Admiral of Mosquito Land."

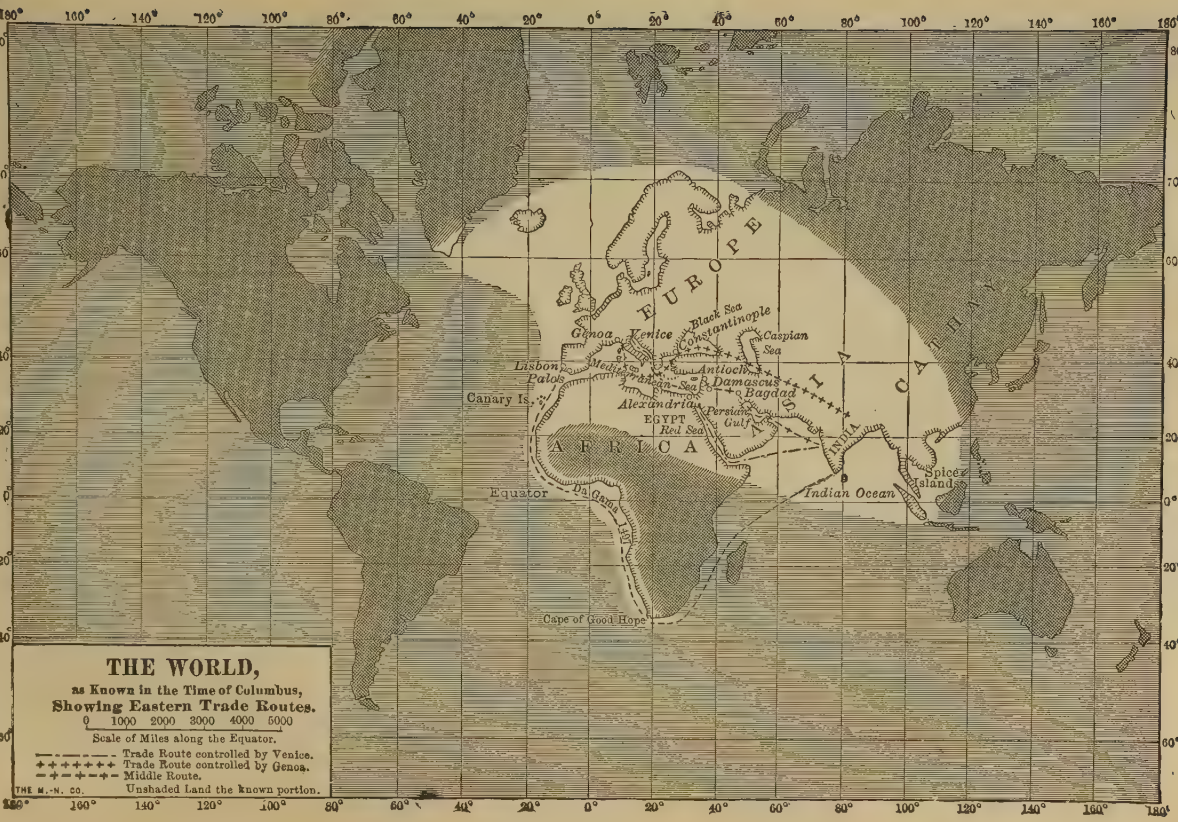
Columbus in chains

At length an officer was sent from Spain to examine into the affairs of the colony. He was unfriendly, and when he reached the settlement he put Columbus in chains and sent him back to Spain in dishonor. Columbus, however, still held the favor of his sovereigns, who sent him on another voyage of discovery.

175. The Last Voyage of Columbus.—In 1502 he sailed on his fourth voyage, coasting along the eastern shore of Central America. But he was not able to accomplish much, and was at last shipwrecked on the island of Jamaica, where he spent a long year of hardship and misery. Finally he sailed for Spain, where he arrived but a short time before Queen Isabella, his only protector, died. For eighteen months he lived broken in health and cast down in spirit. On May 20, 1506, he died, not knowing that he had discovered the New World.

The belief that the world is round

176. The Greatness of Columbus.—Columbus was one of the great men of history and one of the most remarkable of his time. He was not alone in believing that the earth was round; for that was believed by the wise men of his day, who had their knowledge from the Greeks. It was one of the scientific truths that had been spreading with the revival of learning.


EUROPE
ASIA
CATHAY
AFRICA
Genoa
Venice
Black Sea
Constantinople
Caspian Sea
Lisbon
Palos
Mediterranean Sea
Antioch
Damascus
Bagdad
Canary Is.
Alexandria
Persian Gulf
EGYPT
Red Sea
INDIA
Spice Islands
Equator
Gaula
Indian Ocean
Cape of Good Hope
THE WORLD,
as Known in the Time of Columbus,
Showing Eastern Trade Routes.
0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000
Scale of Miles along the Equator.
Trade Route controlled by Venice.
Trade Route controlled by Genoa.
Middle Route.
Unshaded Land the known portion.
THE M.-N. CO.

The worthy motives of Columbus

But his greatness lay in the fact that he had the daring spirit and self-reliance, with the trained seaman's skill and the power of command, to make his belief practical. He was willing to face the danger and the hardship of an uncharted voyage on an unknown sea. And his motive was for the advance of science and the good of the church. It was his purpose to lead a crusade to the Holy Sepulchre with the wealth he should obtain in the new-found lands. But he died poor, not knowing even the grandeur of his great discovery. It was a glorious fulfilment of the new spirit of exploration.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The reports of European travellers increased the interest of the people in the Far East. 2. The three overland routes by which goods were brought from the Far East led to Genoa and Venice. 3. When the Turks cut off the northern route, and threatened the other two, the great commercial problem was to find an ocean route to India, China, and Japan. 4. Diaz, by sailing east, discovered the Cape of Good Hope in 1487. 5. Columbus, in trying to reach India by sailing west, discovered the New World in 1492. But he thought he had reached the Indies.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How did travellers increase interest in the far-off lands?

2. Why was it necessary for the rising nations of Europe to find an ocean route to the Far East?

3. Who was Diaz and what did he accomplish?

4. What was the great plan of Columbus?

5. Tell what you can about his difficulties in getting help to carry out his plan.

6. Imagine yourself with Columbus on his first voyage and give an account of his trials. What do you admire in him?

7. Trace on the map his voyages and also that of Diaz.

8. Do you see clearly how trade with the East led to the discovery of America?

CHAPTER XXII

THE SUCCESSORS OF COLUMBUS

The voyaging of Vespucius

177. Americus Vespucius and the Naming of America. —From what you have learned in the preceding chapter, you would naturally expect that the New World would be named after Columbus. The reason why it was not can be told in a few words. After Columbus had led the way, there were many explorers who sailed for the West. Among them was Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence. How many voyages he made and just when he made them we do not know. But some believe that one was made in 1501–2, when he skirted the coast of Brazil and perhaps a part of the eastern coast of South America to the south of Brazil. At all events he wrote letters describing what he said he had seen in his voyaging, and his description was the first printed account of the main-land of the New World.

AMERICUS VESPUCIUS

The New World

Up to that time Europe, Asia, and Africa were known as the three parts of the world, and it was believed that to the south there might be another unknown continent which would make a fourth part. As Americus Vespucius called the land which he described "The New World," meaning by this the fourth part, some geographers believed that he had proved its existence. In a treatise on geography published a few years later, it was suggested, therefore, that this fourth part should be called "Amer-

ica," after Americus Vespucius. Accordingly, the name was given first to Brazil, later to South America, and finally to all of the New World.

178. **A Boundary Line Agreed Upon.**—As an outcome of the discoveries of Columbus in the West and of Portuguese sea-captains in the East, there was fear that trouble might arise between Spain and Portugal over the new-found lands. To make clear, therefore, what part of these lands each of the two countries might properly claim, in 1493 a boundary line was set by Pope Alexander VI, which in the following year was somewhat changed by a treaty. According to the boundary agreed upon, east of the line the Portuguese were to have the right in the future to make voyages along the coast of Africa and onward to the east; while Spain, sailing to the west of the line, was to be free to explore and colonize the heathen lands in that part of the world.

179. **John Cabot Discovers the Main-Land of North America.**—No one had any doubt that the navies of Spain and Portugal would be able to defend their claims, especially since no other country as yet had made discoveries in the new lands.

John Cabot

Even at the time when Columbus sailed on his first voyage, however, a sea-captain of England was planning to sail westward in search of the Indies. This was John Cabot, a Venetian merchant and mariner living in Bristol. He had been on many voyages and had spent some time in Mecca (Arabia), where he had seen many caravans laden with the wealth of the East. He was interested in the trade with these countries, and now sought to reach them by a water route.

Bristol was one of the chief English seaports, where news of the recent explorations of Portugal and Spain was probably talked over among the sea-captains. Doubtless some among them had made short voyages of exploration to the west; and the first voyage of Columbus, we are told, gave Cabot "a great flame of desire to attempt some notable thing." He therefore obtained a patent from King Henry VII, allowing him to go on a "voyage of discovery and trade with unknown countries beyond the sea."

Cabot receives a patent from the King

SEBASTIAN CABOT

It was not until May, 1497, however, nearly five years after the first voyage of Columbus, that Cabot sailed, with only one small ship and eighteen men, principally of Bristol. Holding his course westerly, he landed on the coast of Labrador. Here he raised the flag of England and set up a large cross. He then sailed south for about three hundred leagues, including probably a voyage through and around the Gulf of St. Lawrence. But he saw no human beings.

He lands on the coast of Labrador

He was the first navigator to reach the main-land of North America, for Columbus did not touch the continent until 1498. On Cabot's return to England he found himself a hero, and was called the Great Admiral. Honors were showered upon him, and with much dignity the simple sea-captain now went about dressed in fine silks like the gentlemen of his day. He believed he had reached the empire of the Great Khan, and that if he sailed farther south he would reach the land of spices.

The Great Admiral

The second voyage

This belief, together with his tales of wonderful fishing grounds where the fish were so numerous that his vessels found it difficult to get through, excited much interest, and the King granted him a new patent. The following year, with five or six ships, he made another voyage, his son Sebastian perhaps being with him. We know nothing of this expedition, but from what was put into the maps just afterward it seems likely that the fleet sailed along the coast of New England and possibly as far south as Florida.

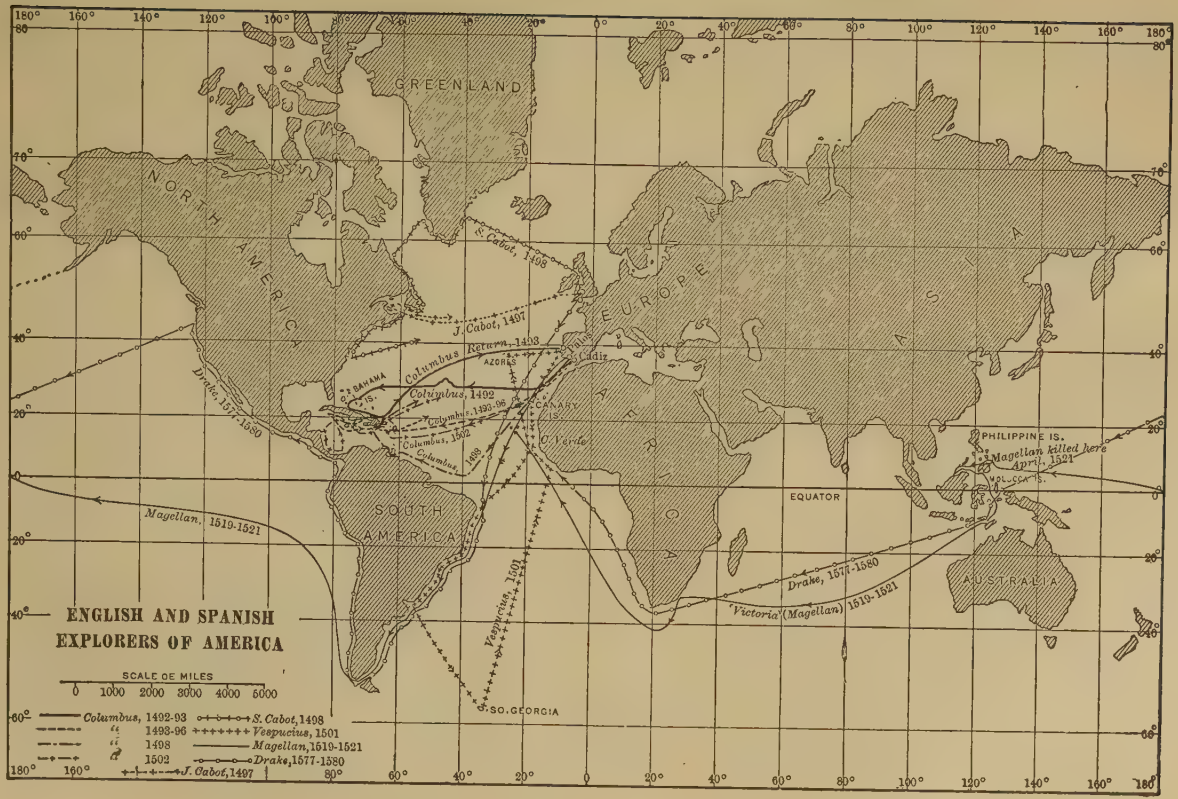
ST. JOHN'S GATE, BRISTOL, ENGLAND. A LANDMARK CONTEMPORARY WITH CABOT'S RESIDENCE IN BRISTOL

For a long time the English thought very little about the discovery. They honored Cabot as a sea-captain, yet his voyages meant little to them, for he had not brought back any rich products from the Far East. Very soon America came to be regarded merely as a barrier blocking the way to Asia. Upon these discoveries of John Cabot, however, England later based her claims to the continent when it was recognized as such.

Why England claimed the continent later

The work of Portuguese sea-captains

180. **Vasco da Gama Reaches India by an All-Water Route.**—The year after Cabot discovered the main-land of North America and thus gave the English a footing in the New World, Vasco da Gama reached India by an all-water route around Africa, and thus opened the way for


GREENLAND
NORTH AMERICA
EUROPE
ASIA
AFRICA
SOUTH AMERICA
AUSTRALIA
EQUATOR
PHILIPPINE IS.
Magellan killed here April, 1521
MOLUCCA IS.
S. Cabot, 1498
J. Cabot, 1497
Returns, 1493
Columbus
Cadiz
AZORES
CANARY IS.
C. Verde
Columbus, 1492
BAHAMA IS.
Columbus, 1493-96
Columbus, 1502
Columbus, 1498
Drake, 1577-1580
Magellan, 1519-1521
Vespucius, 1501
Victoria (Magellan) 1519-1521
Drake, 1577-1580
SO. GEORGIA
ENGLISH AND SPANISH EXPLORERS OF AMERICA
SCALE OF MILES
0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000
Columbus, 1492-93
" 1493-96
" 1498
" 1502
S. Cabot, 1498
Vespucius, 1501
Magellan, 1519-1521
Drake, 1577-1580
J. Cabot, 1497

Portuguese trade in the East. For seventy years Portuguese sea-captains—a part of the time under the guidance of Prince Henry, as we have seen—had been slowly but surely making their way down the west coast of Africa. In the summer of 1497, Vasco da Gama was sent by the King of Portugal over the same route to make explorations and get spices.

Da Gama reaches Hindustan

His journal gives some interesting details of the voyage. They landed in southern Africa, where they gave the natives little round bells and red caps in exchange for ivory bracelets, and, having erected a cross and pillar, they sailed away. After failing several times on account of storms, they finally rounded the Cape of Good Hope and continued the voyage eastward. At Mozambique they stopped again and found Mohammedan merchants, who had captives from India. This cheered Da Gama and his companions, for it seemed that they must be nearing India itself—the country they sought. Finally, in May, 1498, they reached Calicut, on the eastern coast of Hindustan. Here they were received in state by the King, but had some trouble with Moorish merchants. At last the King gave them a letter to the King of Portugal, and they sailed for home richly laden with Eastern goods.

Da Gama's return to Lisbon

Many died on the way, but those who reached Lisbon (August, 1499) received a great welcome, and Da Gama was given a triumphal entry. He brought back with him a rich cargo of silks, damask robes with satin linings, and jewels, together with cinnamon, cloves, ginger, nutmeg, pepper, and other spices. The all-water route to the Far East from Europe was at last found. This voyage of Da Gama, opening up a profitable trade with

the East, was in marked contrast with the meagre returns, as people thought then, of the voyages of Columbus undertaken for the same purpose.

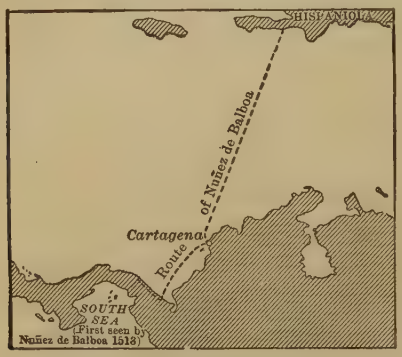
Its results were far-reaching. As soon as the Portuguese established their trade over this new route, goods could be brought to Europe more cheaply than by the overland routes, and of course prices fell. Italian cities lost their prosperity and Venice gave place to Lisbon as the collecting and distributing centre of Europe. Trade passed from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic coast, and, as we shall see later, gradually shifted northward. **Results of the voyage**

181. **Balboa Discovers the Pacific.**—Portuguese explorers continued sailing eastward by way of Africa, and Spanish explorers westward by way of the Atlantic. And while the Spaniards failed to find the wealth of the Indies, their search led to the discovery of riches of another kind—the discovery of gold. On the Isthmus of Panama, joining North and South America, were several Spanish posts where a number of adventurers were exploring the region for gold. Among them was Vasco Nuñez de Balboa. He had heard from an Indian chief that beyond the mountains was a great sea, and that far to the south was a country rich in gold. The Indians knew that the Spaniards were greedy for this precious metal, and, as was the case with all the tribes, they told what they believed would please the strangers. **Balboa**

BALBOA

The discovery of the Pacific

On September 1, 1513, Balboa set out with about two hundred men, several hundred Indian porters, and dogs on an exploring expedition. Early on a September morning, having climbed the mountains on his way across the isthmus, he beheld for the first time the Pacific Ocean. In wonder he gazed upon the vast expanse stretching far away to the horizon. Four days later his company reached the coast. Balboa waited for the rising tide, and then, rushing into the advancing billows with a flourish of his sword, he took possession in the name of the King and Queen of Spain. He named it the South Sea.



BALBOA'S ROUTE AND THE DISCOVERY OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN

182. The Wonderful Voyage of Magellan.—Balboa not only discovered the ocean, but in doing so led the way in finding out that the land discovered by Columbus was not Asia after all, but a separate continent. It still remained to be proved whether, as Columbus believed, the land of silks and spices could be reached by sailing west.

Magellan's plan

The honor of doing this belongs to Ferdinand Magellan. He was a Portuguese captain who had made a voyage to the Far East around the Cape of Good Hope; but he believed by sailing west the route would be shorter. His plan was to find a passage or strait in America through which he might sail; for it was now the common belief that America extended to the south pole but was cut

in two by one or more channels of the ocean. When he asked aid of his King and was refused, he entered the service of the Spanish King, and started on his famous voyage of discovery.

A trying experience

With a fleet of five old vessels, manned by two hundred and eighty men, on September 20, 1519, he put to sea. Many troubles awaited him. Four days after the fleet left port a small vessel overtook the flag-ship with this message from the father of Magellan's wife: "Be watchful. Some of your captains have said that if you give them trouble they will kill you." "Be of good cheer," was Magellan's answer, "for be they true men or false I fear them not." It was not long before severe storms and scarcity of food and water bred a spirit of mutiny among the sullen sailors.

A sheltered harbor

Four months passed before the fleet reached the mouth of La Plata River. There Magellan spent three weeks in finding out that it was not a strait. It took another two months amid ceaseless and furious storms to skirt the coast of Patagonia. Then, on the last day of March, six months after leaving the home port, he found a well-sheltered harbor, where he anchored. Here was enjoyed a plentiful supply of fish.

The stubborn Magellan

But the sailors were disheartened. There was little bread and wine left, and no hope of getting more. They begged Magellan to return. He stubbornly refused. Then open mutiny broke out. He sternly put it down. A little later one of the vessels was wrecked; but even in the face of this discouragement, amid violent storms, he pushed on. To Magellan, dangers and hardships were matters of small concern.

The Strait of Magellan

At length his fleet entered the passage of water which we now call the Strait of Magellan. From this place one of the ships stole away for Spain. Again the sailors on the

Photograph by Underwood and Underwood, New York

THE STRAIT OF MAGELLAN

three remaining vessels begged to return home. "I will go on," was Magellan's stern answer, "if we have to eat the leather off the ship's yards."

The Pacific Ocean

Still heading westward, they began the long, weary voyage across the vast expanse of water which Balboa some years before had called the South Sea. Magellan, however, pleased with its peaceful waters, named it the Pacific Ocean. But although the ocean was calm, Magellan's troubles were not over. The worst even was yet to come. Famine, scurvy, and death followed. Strong men grew sick at heart. The survivors kept alive only by eating the skins and leather bound about the great ropes of the ship. Thus were the words of Magellan made true.

Magellan slain

At last the Philippine Islands were reached. Here they landed. Magellan converted a native chief to Christianity, and, joining in a battle against one of the chief's

heathen enemies, was slain. Those of his men who were left lifted anchor and steered their course homeward. It was still a long voyage; and not until September 6, 1522, nearly three years after leaving Spain, did they arrive at the home port. The one vessel which returned was manned by eighteen starving sailors, who were little more than staggering skeletons.

A single vessel reaches the home port

This was the greatest voyage that had ever been made. It proved beyond doubt that the earth was round. Moreover, the question in men's minds whether the land discovered by Columbus was really the East Indies, as he supposed, was also answered. America, men were now sure, was a new continent.

A great voyage

183. **Cartier in the St. Lawrence.**—While these explorations and discoveries were being made by mariners of Portugal, Spain, and England, France was absorbed in strengthening herself within her own borders. Doubtless her fishermen joined those of other nations on the banks of Newfoundland, but not until 1534 did France send out any explorers to the New World.* In that year Francis sent Jacques Cartier, an expert Norman navigator, to find a northwest passage to China. This able seaman coasted along the shores of Newfoundland and Labrador, entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and

Cartier enters the Gulf of St. Lawrence

CARTIER

* In 1524, Francis I planned a voyage under an Italian, Giovanni Verrazano; and an alleged letter from him to Francis, reporting the voyage and the discovery of the Hudson River, was published many years later. But there is no proof that the voyage was ever taken, or that the letter was ever written; and the contents of the letter make the voyage improbable.

returned to France with a full report of what he had seen.

Cartier lands at Stadacona and Hochelaga

The following year he made another voyage, this time sailing up the St. Lawrence, which he believed to be the passage he was seeking. He landed at the little Indian village of Stadacona, where Quebec now stands, and was warned by the Indians not to go farther on account of snows, tempests, and floating ice. But he refused to be turned from his purpose. On his way upstream he came to another Indian village, Hochelaga, on an island. It had fifty houses strongly defended by a palisade. To-day we call the place Montreal.

The French and the Indians

Here a thousand Indians thronged the shore, eager to welcome the pale-faced strangers. They danced and sang and heaped the boats with gifts of fish and corn. When Cartier landed with his crew, the squaws and children pressed about them and in wonder felt of the men's beards and touched their faces. Then the warriors, squatting in a circle about the new-comers, had their sick chief brought to Cartier to be healed by his touch. To the steep hill behind the village Cartier gave the name Montreal, which means royal mountain.

The French fail to plant a colony

After a brief stay the French returned to Quebec. There they spent a terrible winter. Twenty-five of their number died. At one time only three or four were well enough to nurse the sick. As the ground was frozen so hard that they could not dig graves, they hid the bodies of their dead in the great snow-drifts. After a winter of great distress and suffering Cartier returned to France. Five years later he made a second attempt to plant a colony at Quebec, but failed.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. America received its name from Americus Vespucius. 2. John Cabot was the first navigator to reach the main-land of North America (1497). 3. Vasco da Gama was the first sea-captain to reach India by an all-water route (1498). 4. Balboa discovered the Pacific (1513). 5. Magellan in a wonderful voyage proved that the earth was round and that America was a new continent (1519–22). 6. Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as the site of Montreal (1534).

TO THE PUPIL

1. Do you think America should have been named after Columbus? Give reasons for your answer.

2. What did the following men accomplish: John Cabot, Vasco da Gama, Balboa, Magellan, and Cartier?

3. In imagination go with Vasco da Gama, Magellan, and Cartier, and give an account of your experiences.

4. What do you like about Magellan?

5. In what ways does he resemble Columbus?

6. Trace on your map all the voyages described in this chapter.

CHAPTER XXIII

THE BEGINNINGS OF CONQUEST

184. Hernando Cortez and His Expedition to Mexico.—Twelve years after Columbus made his first voyage, a young Spaniard of nineteen sailed on one of the fleets for the New World. Like the men who had voyaged with Columbus, he was filled with a desire to get the gold and precious stones which, it was believed, were to be found in the new land. This young man was Hernando Cortez.

After a stormy voyage he landed at Hispaniola. Here he made himself useful in putting down an Indian revolt, Cortez in Cuba

and after a few years joined a successful expedition to Cuba, where he lived on a large plantation granted him by the governor. He owned, also, some gold mines, from which in a few years he made a large sum of money.

A man of force and daring

Strong and forceful, of good mind and temper, he won admiration, and men looked to him for leadership. When, therefore, a suitable commander was needed to head an expedition to Mexico, Cortez was chosen. Although his orders were to confine himself to exploration, his heart was set on conquest.

CORTEZ

The Aztecs

185. **The March to the Mexican Capital.**—He landed on the east coast of Mexico in February, 1519, and with his men marched along the shore, the fleet keeping alongside until they reached a point on the coast where Cortez founded the town of Vera Cruz, which he made his headquarters. From the natives of that region he learned that they had to pay tribute to a confederacy of three powerful Aztec tribes, whose chief was Montezuma.

The huge pueblo

Each of these tribes lived in a huge "pueblo," or village, consisting of one long building of many rooms, like those of our Pueblo Indians in New Mexico and Arizona, only the pueblos were not built in cliffs. The most powerful of their towns was Tenochtitlan, the Mexican capital, which was situated in the valley of Mexico, on an island of a lake. The island was reached from the shore by long causeways. On the same site now stands the modern City of Mexico.

It was August before Cortez set out on his march toward the Mexican capital with four hundred and fifty men and fifteen horses. To the natives the horses were as frightful as the guns and the cannon, all of which were new and strange to them. At Tlascala, Cortez found a strong tribe which was independent of Montezuma. These natives opposed him savagely at first, but he conquered them and made friends of them, the more readily as they were enemies of the Aztecs. They were very valuable to him during his campaigns, for they furnished him with a large body of warriors. Indeed, the whole Spanish conquest was based on the fact that each native race or tribe hated the others worse than it did the foreigners.

The Spanish soldiers and their allies

The chief reason why so few Spaniards dared venture among so many thousand foes was because they were protected by body armor. It was of solid metal and the arrows and spears of the savages could not pierce it. One white man could thus fight a hundred Indians, with little risk beyond that of being unhorsed and beaten to death on the ground.

The coming of the pale-faced strangers had caused widespread alarm. Montezuma was greatly troubled. For, many years before that time, according to a story which all Mexicans believed, a fair-skinned being, called the Sky God, had been driven out of the country by the God of Darkness. This Sky God had been their friend, and had taught them many things. When driven away he had said, "Some day I shall return, and when I do I shall come with men as fair-skinned as myself and become the ruler of the country."

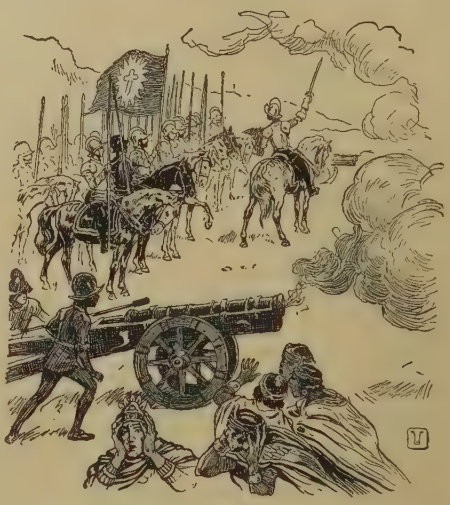
Montezuma troubled

Cortez and the Sky God

Montezuma believed Cortez to be the Sky God, and therefore he feared him. He sent messengers with gifts of great value—shields, helmets, and various ornaments of gold. They said the march to Mexico was full of danger. But Cortez was determined to go forward.

The Aztecs hate and fear the Spaniard

186. The Spaniards in the Mexican Capital.—Seeing this, Montezuma decided not to oppose him. When, therefore, he entered the capital, in November, 1519, it was with an escort provided by Montezuma himself. Cortez and his men were given quarters in the council-house near the great temple. This they at once began to fortify and provision; for they knew that the Aztecs hated and feared them, and would destroy them if possible.



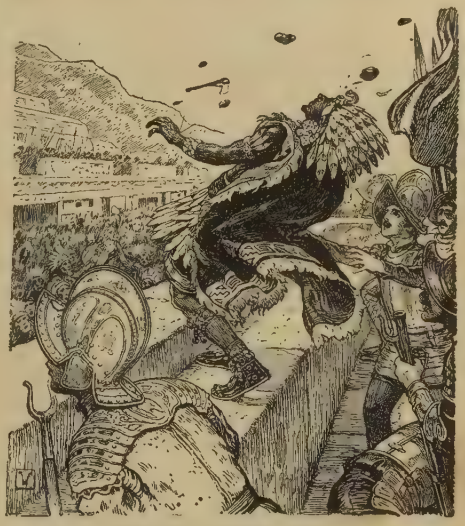
CORTEZ PARADING HIS FOLLOWERS BEFORE THE MESSENGERS FROM MONTEZUMA

Montezuma a captive

In order to weaken the power of his enemies, Cortez seized Montezuma and held him and his brother, the next heir to the throne, as hostages. For a while he kept them in chains, although he pretended to treat them as guests. The Aztecs were angry and full of terror for the future. Although they were eager for revenge and for security, yet they were intensely superstitious and dared not act without a king consecrated by their priests.

When at last, however, they were attacked during a religious festival and several hundred of their foremost men were killed, a part of them could restrain themselves no longer and fell furiously upon the Spaniards. Cortez was away and did not order or wish the massacre, but upon his return he had to accept its results. During the siege which followed the attack he sent out Montezuma's brother to get supplies. But, instead of carrying out the orders of Cortez, he urged on the Aztec warriors and was at once made their leader. Cortez forced Montezuma to go out on the battlement and order the fighting stopped, but now that his brother had become leader of the people Montezuma was regarded as only a private person and the tool of the foreign foe. Making him the target for arrows and stones, they wounded him so severely that he died soon afterward.

A furious attack



THE DEATH OF MONTEZUMA

Death of Montezuma

After an entire week of desperate fighting, it became plain to Cortez that he must leave the Mexican capital. He tried to steal away at night without being discovered; but the Mexicans were on the watch and attacked the Spaniards. The struggle in the darkness was frightful. Only after desperate fighting did Cortez at last succeed in

Cortez escapes but with heavy loss

making his escape, and then with the loss of much of his army. That night is still called by Spaniards "La Noche Triste"—"The Sorrowful Night." About six months later, however, Cortez with reinforcements and fresh Indian allies returned and laid siege to the Mexican capital. After a stubborn defence of five months, the Aztecs surrendered (1521).

Cortez as an explorer

187. **Cortez a Conqueror and Explorer.**—This victory, which was a very important part of the conquest of Mexico, brought great honor to Cortez. He was made governor and captain-general of the country, now called New Spain.

But Cortez was more than a warrior and conqueror. For while busy looking after the affairs in Mexico, he still found time to establish Spanish settlements at important points in different parts of the country. He also did some valuable exploring. He fitted out a fleet to explore the Gulf of Mexico, and another to explore the shores of the Pacific. In one of his expeditions on the Pacific coast he discovered the Peninsula of California; and he also tried to discover the strait which, men believed, connected the Atlantic and Pacific.

MAP SHOWING ROUTE OF CORTEZ

The search for the passage to India

You will remember that only two years before the conquest of Mexico, Magellan had discovered what is now known as the Strait of Magellan. This was so far to the south, however, that the voyage to the East Indies by that

route was too long for practical purposes. Therefore explorers continued for many years their search for the passage through America to the north, as we have already seen in the case of Cartier. In these explorations men were finding out many things of value about the geography of the New World.

Francisco Pizarro

188. Francisco Pizarro and the Conquest of Peru.— Not many years after the conquest of Mexico by Cortez, another Spaniard, equally daring, carried on a similar campaign against the Incas of Peru. This soldier, who made his name famous, was Francisco Pizarro. He was a resident of Panama, one of the Spanish settlements which had grown up on the isthmus since the discovery of the South Sea by Balboa. Here he owned a house, a farm, and Indian slaves, and was a leading man of the settlement. He had already distinguished himself in conquest; and full of zeal, he obtained permission from the governor to explore the coast of the South Sea eastward.

A STREET IN CUZCO, PERU, TODAY, SHOWING HOUSES BUILT UPON THE OLD INCA WALLS

Pizarro made captain-general of Peru

Returning from this expedition, he brought back reports of a wonderful city, Tumbez, with a palace, a temple, and figures of men and animals made of gold. He had with him llamas, fine woollen garments, and vases of gold and silver. Seeking aid from the King, he went to Spain where for what he had done he was made captain-general of Peru, for that was the country he visited.

Pizarro in Peru

After a year he returned to the New World with his four brothers and a small band of followers, and in 1531 we find him again in Peru. This time he captured its ruler, the Inca, penetrated to the sacred capital, Cuzco, and made himself the conqueror of Peru very much as Cortez had done in Mexico. The story of the capture and ransom of the Inca will give some idea of the way in which the Spaniards won their conquests and heaped up their gold.

The Inca visits Pizarro

189. The Spaniards Seize the Inca.—Upon the approach of Pizarro, the Inca had despatched messengers with gifts and words of welcome; and Pizarro, on nearing the capital, sent Hernando de Soto, a gallant cavalier and trusted captain, with thirty-five horsemen to invite the Inca to visit him. The next day the Inca returned this visit, attended by a large body of followers, who wore quilted cotton doublets, and carried weapons including lances and copper-headed clubs, bows, slings, and lassos.

THE SPANISH SOLDIERS OF PIZARRO SEIZE THE INCA

The Inca seized

The size of the Inca's army disturbed Pizarro, but he gave no sign of fear. He concealed his men in a house near by, however, and sent a priest to meet the Inca. When the Inca approached, the priest addressed him in a long speech, telling him he must pay tribute, must

believe in Christ, and must give up the worship of idols. The Inca, not understanding the strange words and manner of the priest, threw the Bible that was handed him upon the ground. At once, by signal, the Spanish soldiers rushed from their hiding-places, seized the Inca, and cut down his followers.

190. Pizarro, the Inca, and the Conquest of Peru.— The ransom

The Inca was confined in a room twenty-two feet long and seventeen feet wide. Desiring his freedom, he reached as high as he could on the wall and, making a mark, promised to fill the room with gold up to that height, if Pizarro would let him go. The crafty leader agreed. It took six months for the natives to collect this vast quantity of gold and silver, which they gathered in the form of vases, tablets, ornaments, and bullion from all over Peru. Finally it was brought together —in value an enormous sum.

THE INCA MAKING THE MARK UPON THE WALL

The grasping Spaniards were of course overjoyed, and for a time they seem to have treated the Inca with kindness. But a little later, fearing his power, Pizarro brought him to trial, and condemned him to be burned to death unless he declared his belief in Christ. This he did; but nevertheless he was strangled with a bow-string. Pizarro then marched upon Cuzco, the capital, and there appointed a new Inca to take the place of the

The Inca strangled with a bow-string

Pizarro conquers Peru

one he had cruelly murdered. He had succeeded in his purpose. He had conquered Peru (1533).

191. **Hernando de Soto and His Followers.**—As one explorer after another returned with glowing accounts of his adventures, the belief quickly spread that the newly discovered countries were the richest in the world. Men were eager to try their fortunes, and each new explorer hoped to surpass the last in getting wealth and gold.*

DE SOTO

Among this eager number was Hernando de Soto. As we have just seen, he was one of Pizarro's trusted captains. It was he that arrested the Inca, but he had no part in his murder. He also shared in the enormous ransom, and from this expedition he had returned to Spain with great wealth and honor.

De Soto made governor of Cuba

Hoping to find another land as rich as Peru and Mexico, he asked the King of Spain to make him governor of Cuba. This the King did, and also granted him permission to conquer and settle Florida. De Soto easily found men to join his expedition. They sold houses and lands, and in fact all that they had, in order to go. A brilliant company, therefore, soon gathered about him as their leader. There were six hundred in all, including gay nobles and

A brilliant body of followers

* One was Pamfilo de Narvaez. With four hundred men he anchored in Tampa Bay, Florida (1528.) Marching inland, he found, instead of gold, only a pathless wilderness and unfriendly Indians.

Ponce de Leon had discovered this land in the full bloom of an Easter Sunday (1513). He named it Florida from Pascua Florida, the Spanish name for Easter Sunday, the day on which he landed.

veterans of war. After arriving in Cuba, De Soto spent some time there, and then, leaving his wife to govern the island, set out to explore Florida with five hundred and seventy men and two hundred horses. After a voyage of about two weeks they landed at Tampa Bay, upon the western coast of Florida, in May, 1539.

De Soto cruel to the Indians

192. Hostile Indians but No Gold.—But soon after landing their troubles began. The journey was full of danger, and the Indians were hostile. From the start De Soto treated them cruelly, for he respected neither their rights nor their property. Everywhere he demanded corn of the chiefs, and forced both braves and squaws to carry baggage and do other forms of menial work. Many of the Indians whom he used as porters and guides were enslaved or put to death. De Soto had no feeling for their suffering. He thought only of the gold for which he was searching, and was always demanding that the Indians should tell him where it could be found.

The sufferings of the Spaniards

Gold he did not find, but his difficulties increased daily. There were no roads, and the explorers had to struggle through lakes and streams and marshes, threading their way through dense woods and tangled underbrush, or following when they could the trails of Indians or wild beasts. They suffered almost beyond bearing from swarms of mosquitoes, so fierce that the blood from their stings sometimes streamed off the soldiers' bodies. They suffered too from hunger, and had constantly to fight with the Indians. The woods seemed full of these dusky warriors, and often the Spaniards could advance only by fighting them step by step.

The stubborn De Soto

After a while the men implored De Soto to return, but he was stubborn. When once he made up his mind, no one could move him from his purpose.

The giant chief

193. **A Furious Fight with the Indians.**—On one occasion he reached a town where the ruler, a giant chief, sat on cushions upon a raised platform, his slaves holding over him a buckskin umbrella stained red and white. With sullen dignity, which the white men should have respected, he awaited the approach of the Spaniards. Even their prancing steeds did not disturb his calmness of manner. But De Soto, according to his custom, compelled this chief to supply him with a quantity of food and attend him on the next stage of his journey.

DE SOTO'S FIGHT WITH THE INDIANS

The Indians attack the Spaniards

Together they arrived at a town called Mavilla, an Indian word from which we get the name Mobile, for the city and river in Alabama. Here De Soto's insolence brought on an attack from the Indians. The fighting was furious. The Spaniards at last set fire to the houses, and by nightfall the town was destroyed. Of the Spaniards one hundred and seventy were killed or wounded and most of their clothing, arms, and supplies were burned. They were now so destitute that they were obliged to weave

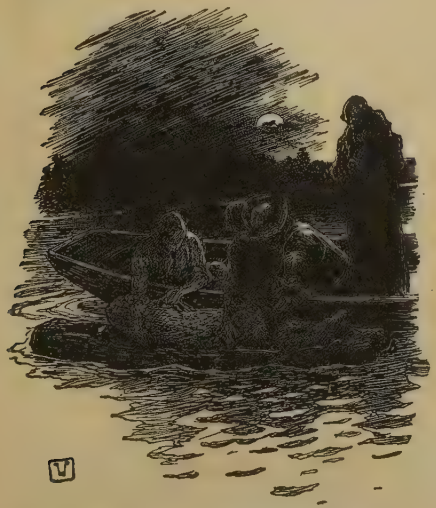
long grass into mats for clothing. They were in a pitiable condition.

More dangers and hardships

194. The Fruitless Search for Gold.—Marching northward, about the middle of December they reached a little Indian town of two hundred houses, probably on the western bank of the Yazoo River. After spending the winter here, they again took up their march late in the following April. It was the old story over again. They had to fight their way through hostile tribes, stopping to make boats when the Indians would not give them canoes, and always searching for the gold lands, which they could never find.

De Soto reaches the Mississippi

195. De Soto Discovers the Mississippi.—In the spring of 1541, about two years after landing at Tampa Bay, they reached the banks of the Mississippi. Here they built four boats, crossed the river, and continued the search for the provinces said to contain gold. But still there was no gold to be found.



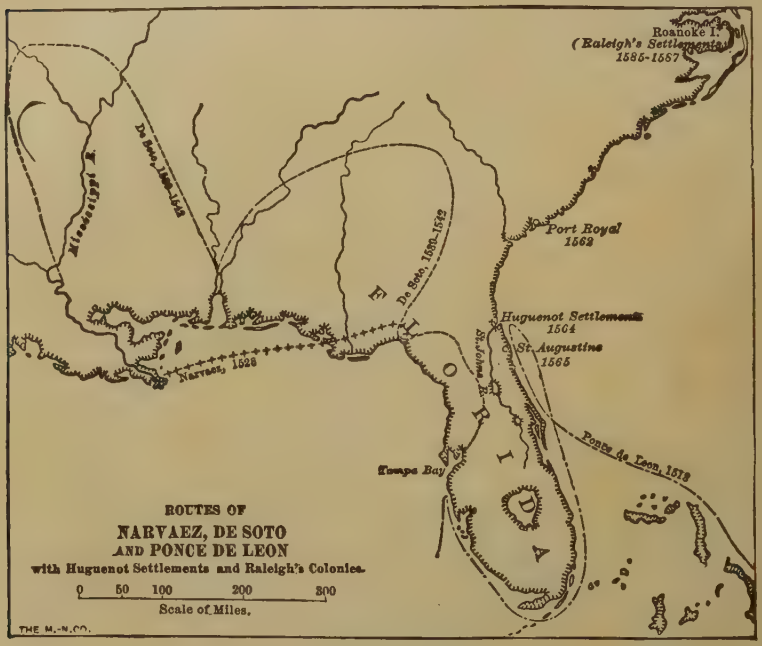
DE SOTO'S GRAVE IN THE MIGHTY RIVER HE HAD DISCOVERED

De Soto's death

Finally De Soto decided to go to the coast and build ships in which to send for aid. Tired, discouraged, and weakened in body, in May, 1542, he fell sick with a severe fever and died. His followers, fearing that the red men might attack them if they

learned of De Soto's death, wrapped his body in blankets, weighted it with sand, and, in the darkness of midnight, lowered it into the black waters of the Mississippi.

De Soto had come to America to seek gold and fame. What he found was hunger, suffering, disease, and a grave



in the gloomy waters of the mighty river he had discovered.

Spain made wealthy by gold and silver

196. Gold and Silver Mines in Mexico and Peru.—Although De Soto did not find the gold he sought, other Spaniards found in Mexico and Peru immense quantities of the precious metals. Spain became enormously wealthy from her mines. It is believed that the gold and silver

that poured into her treasury from this source would now be worth five thousand million dollars.

Indians and negro slaves in the mines

At first native Indians were employed as laborers in the mines. But they were lazy, incapable, stupid, and hard to govern. Moreover, being accustomed to a wild life, they sickened and died under confinement. In Mexico, where the number of Indians was large, this mattered little to their new masters; but on the islands the supply was not sufficient. The Spaniards were forced, therefore, to import slaves from Africa. The change in climate and the hard work caused a rapid death rate even among the negroes. At the same time, they were so much better workers than the Indians that there was an increasing demand for them, and a thriving slave trade was carried on. The great number of inhabitants of negro extraction in all the Spanish-American lands to-day makes it clear that many Africans were imported.

Tireless friars, priests, and missionaries

197. Spain's Missionary Work with the Indians.—But a brighter and more attractive picture of the treatment of the Indians by Spain is presented in her missionary work carried on for the conversion of the natives to Christianity. It was this religious motive that largely inspired Ferdinand and Isabella in giving aid to Columbus, and Spain continued to send friars and priests wherever she conquered new territory and established settlements. The missionaries were earnest and tireless. They went everywhere, learning the native languages, and teaching and converting the natives.

Indian schools

Besides looking after the Indians in the Spanish towns, they built in every Indian village a church, a hospital, and a school where they taught the children to read and

write Spanish and explained the meaning of the Christian religion. In Mexico, where the Indians were more civilized, boys were taught in workshops to be tailors,

AN OLD SPANISH MISSION IN NEW MEXICO, ERECTED IN 1604

carpenters, blacksmiths, shoemakers, and painters. By the middle of the sixteenth century, colleges even were established.

Spanish missions

Faithful missionaries went out also among the wild Indians and by degrees gathered them into villages and won them over to Christianity and to habits of work. Each mission was really a sort of industrial school, where the Indian had to cultivate a plot of ground for himself, besides working two hours a day on the village farm for

the support of the church. Prayer and the catechism came at the beginning and at the end of the working day.

198. The Growth of Spanish Colonies in the New World.—By 1574 such missions could be found in every country of Spanish America from California to Chile. It has been estimated that in that year the Spanish population in the New World was more than 150,000, and the number of Indians in the regions they controlled about 5,000,000, most of whom had come under the teaching of the friars and priests.

Spanish population in the New World

Such was the extent of the Spanish colonies, and such was the extent of their Christianizing work among the natives. The vastness of their enterprise is all the more wonderful when we remember that at this time not a single English, French, or Dutch settlement had found a foothold anywhere in North or South America. Spain had made a most promising beginning in the work of colonizing the New World.

A most promising beginning

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Cortez conquered Mexico (1519–1521); but he was an explorer as well as a conqueror. 2. Pizarro conquered Peru (1531–1533). 3. De Soto discovered the Mississippi River (1541). He sought gold and fame; he found suffering, disease, and death. 4. Spain was made wealthy by the gold and silver from Peru and Mexico. 5. By 1574 Spain had planted many colonies in America and had done a large missionary work among the Indians.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Who was Montezuma? Why did he and the Aztecs fear Cortez and the Spaniards?

2. What did Cortez accomplish?

3. How did Pizarro treat the Inca?
4. In what way did Spain profit by the conquests of Mexico and Peru?
5. How did De Soto treat the Indians, and how did they treat him?
6. What do you think of De Soto? What was he trying to do? What did he accomplish?
7. Tell what you can about the missionary work the Spaniards did among the Indians.
8. Are you making use of your map in preparing every lesson?

CHAPTER XXIV

ENGLAND IN THE DAYS OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

Reasons for Spanish claims

199. Spain Has a Seeming Advantage in America.—Thus far Spain seemed to enjoy a distinct advantage over other nations. The Spaniards had explored so much in both North and South America that they could give good reasons, from their point of view, for claiming both continents. An even stronger claim could be made by virtue of their colonies; and from these came pouring into the Spanish treasury great wealth which gave the mother country the means for defending her claims. It looked as if Spain, through her colonies, might soon have complete control in the New World.

The rivals of Spain

But this was not to happen. Other nations—the English, the French, and the Dutch—were rising to power and would soon claim a share; indeed, they had to do so for their own safety and even existence, for if Spain had owned all the New World she could easily have conquered all the Old World. Why, in the struggle that followed, the Spaniards failed and their rivals succeeded in planting colonies in various parts of North America, we have now to see.

Why England claimed North America

200. England and the New World.—You remember that John Cabot was the explorer who first reached the main-land of North America, and that upon this dis-

covery England based her claim to the whole continent. For nearly one hundred years, however, nothing was done toward establishing her claim, either by further exploration or by planting colonies. This is easy to explain; for since Cabot brought back no gold, jewels, nor spices, there was little to attract the English to the New World.

England not a strong power

Even if there had been, England was not then a great maritime power, and could not compete with Portugal, which had discovered and now controlled the route to India; nor with Spain, which had discovered America and controlled the ocean route to the West. Moreover, even in the middle of the sixteenth century, England was not a great trading country by sea; and she had no navy for the same reason that she had no army—she did not need it for defence, and the people would not pay for it for aggression. Her island position warded off attack from foreign powers, and Englishmen would not arm their rulers with weapons that might be used against their own liberties. But the lack of a navy made it appear to be impossible to plant or defend any colonies in America, or prevent Spain from mastering the whole New World.

QUEEN ELIZABETH

201. Elizabeth Made Queen of England.—When, about sixty years after Cabot reached North America, Elizabeth was crowned Queen of England, there was little prospect of the colonial growth of her country. There was no money in the treasury with which to support army or navy, to pay soldiers, or to build war vessels. The country was not very poor, but it had not been used to paying war taxes, nor indeed any beyond current needs as they arose. And not only was Elizabeth without money, but her people were divided because of differences of religion. This, more than anything else, stifled the spirit of union. Indeed, no country ever stood in greater need of wise leadership than did England when her young Queen of twenty-five ascended the throne in 1558.

England still a weak country

THE ANCIENT PALACE AT GREENWICH CALLED PLACENTIA, THE BIRTHPLACE OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

It is said that when the news came to her that she was to be Queen, she was so overcome that she fell on her knees, and after a pause exclaimed, "It is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes." From that moment she thought of herself as responsible for the welfare of England. Her great life purpose was to serve her people; and during all her long reign she made it clear that, whatever her own faults and weaknesses might be, she was striving with all her might to do the best she could for her country.

Elizabeth's purpose to serve the people

"Good Queen Bess"

It is not surprising, then, that the people loved a queen so devoted and that they called her "Good Queen Bess." She was deserving of their love, and tried to keep their good-will by kindly and courteous acts. Though she could be very haughty to her courtiers, she was always gracious and sympathetic to the common people. When she entered London for the first time as Queen, an old woman handed her a bunch of rosemary, the only tribute she had to offer. Elizabeth accepted it graciously, and all the way to Westminster held the sprigs in her hand.

Elizabeth's love of finery and display

This Queen, so noble in her bearing and so tender in her sympathies, had very human faults. She was vain and fond of fine clothes and jewels. It is said that she had in her wardrobe three thousand gowns made of the richest material and ornamented with lace, embroidery, and jewels. A German traveller tells of seeing her as she went to chapel at her palace. Elaborately attired in costly silk and jewels, she was attended by richly dressed ladies and nobles of her court, in a procession of great pomp and splendor.

QUEEN ELIZABETH IN ONE OF HER MANY ROYAL COSTUMES

Elizabeth likes to appear in public

She took great pleasure in appearing in public as the central figure of her splendid court. Sometimes she went on horseback, at others on a litter, borne on the shoulders of her greatest nobles. But she liked best to make her public appearances in the royal barge, hung with elegant draperies, taking the lead of a long line of boats filled with admiring followers.

The Queen and Sir Walter Raleigh

She loved flattery, and looked for gallantry from her nobles. There is a famous story of how one day, walking along the street, she came to a muddy spot. While she was hesitating, not wishing to step into the mud, Walter Raleigh, who was standing by, quickly took off the handsome plush cloak he was wearing and laid it down for her to walk on. The Queen was greatly pleased with Raleigh's gallant attention. She extended to him her favor and soon he rose to a high place in the court. Elizabeth not only made him a knight, but presented him with costly gifts and estates, and showered upon him offices of rank and dignity. The brave knight, Sir Walter Raleigh, became a man of great wealth and influence.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH'S CLOAK

202. England Constantly Grows in Wealth and Power. —But we must remember that all these things came about many years after Elizabeth was made Queen. For under her able leadership England was constantly growing in power. Her long reign was one of great peace and prosperity and the country made enormous gains in wealth.

Splendor of display and ceremony in court life

The signs of this increasing wealth were many. It was especially apparent in the splendor of display and ceremony in court life. Not only the Queen and her

ladies but courtiers and gentlemen were given to elaborate dress. In their brave finery they were very picturesque. The men wore tight-fitting doublets, often of velvet and lace, which were stuffed to make a full shape. Their breeches were short, sometimes gathered into puffs around the thigh, and sometimes tied below the knees with silk and trimmed with lace. Often the sleeves of the doublet were slashed to show a lining of lace. Great starched ruffs stood out around their throats, and their shirts were decorated with costly embroidery. The nobleman's shoes were frequently of fine white leather; his cloak was of costly material, trimmed with embroidery and lace. Hats were as varied as other articles of dress, and were of velvet, wool, or beaver, in all colors and shapes.

QUEEN ELIZABETH AT KENILWORTH CASTLE

Sir Walter Raleigh's dress

Sir Walter Raleigh is a good example of the fashions of his day. His dress in some of its detail was rich and dazzling. We are told, for instance, that he wore a hat with a pearl band and a black jewelled feather, that his shoes were tied with white ribbons and studded with costly gems, and that he had a suit of silver armor that glittered with diamonds and other precious stones. Such were the

ENGLISH LADIES OF QUEEN ELIZABETH'S TIME

gay and gorgeous costumes that belonged to the higher social life of Queen Elizabeth's day.

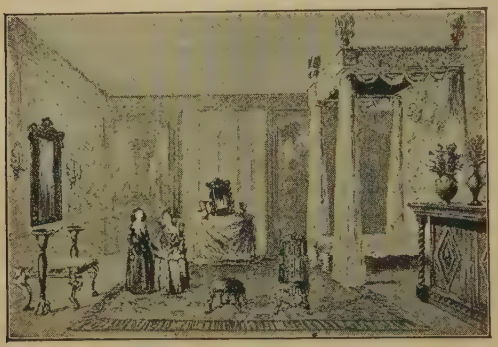
Dwellings more comfortable and convenient

As men were more richly dressed than formerly, so their dwellings were more comfortable and convenient. In those days of greater peace and security the feudal castle gave place to the charming Elizabethan palace, and new mansions were built all over England. Country houses began to be of brick or stone. One of the greatest improvements was the increased number of windows. Where before they had been few and small, they were now larger and let in more sunlight. This was not only pleasanter, but more healthful. Chimneys were built to carry off the smoke, and the delightful chimney-corners, sometimes with great carved chimney-pieces, were a feature of the modern dwellings. Tapestries hung on the bare walls, and chairs and cabinets carved in quaint figures had a place in parlors or drawing-rooms. On the table, pewter dishes took the place of wooden, and a brave display of silver was often seen.

ELIZABETHAN COSTUMES FROM AN OLD PRINT

More comfortable ways of living

The principal apartments were now on an upper floor, and stately stairways were built in. Carpets were used in place of the filthy rushes. Immense carved bedsteads adorned the sleeping-rooms. Pillows, at one time used only for the sick, now became more general. Before this, people had slept on straw pallets, with "a good round log under their heads instead of a bolster or pillow." In eating, knives had taken the place of fingers; but forks were not used until the following century. These are a few of many changes that had come by the close of Elizabeth's reign, when personal comfort for the first time became possible.



AN ELIZABETHAN ROOM AND FURNISHINGS

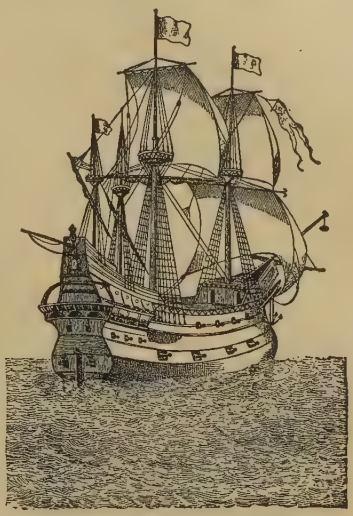
New ideas, new tastes, and new desires

203. England Awakes to a Larger, Richer Life.—England had been backward about taking up these more comfortable ways of living, because so long as world trade centred in the Mediterranean, she was not in close touch with the leading nations. But when trade passed to the Atlantic, England found herself in the swift current of modern life. New ideas, new interests, and new desires seized her. A Spaniard who visited England in Queen Mary's days is said to have remarked, "These English have houses made of sticks and dirt, but they fare commonly as well as the King." This was no longer true. England had waked to a larger, richer life, which soon

placed her abreast of the foremost nations, and before long she became a rival for world power.

204. Bitter Hatred Between England and Spain.— Spain overbearing

But while England was thus only emerging from darkness, Spain was advancing in the full course of her glory. Her brilliant success had given her power and made her overbearing toward other nations. Nowhere was this resented more keenly than in England. There the hatred between the two countries was bitter; and it was nourished and kept active by English privateers.



A SPANISH SHIP OF ELIZABETH'S TIME

During Elizabeth's time the English Channel swarmed with these adventurers, who lay in wait to plunder passing vessels of countries with whom England was at war, and who sometimes did not stop to find out as to the state of war. As Spain had the greatest number and the richest cargoes, and there was a war going on between the two countries much of the time, she suffered most from these attacks. Yet her heaviest losses were not here. English mariners and traders began more and more to trespass on her trading rights at sea and in the colonies. English privateers

205. Drake, Hawkins, and the Slave Trade.—The Spanish colonists wanted African slaves, and English traders gladly furnished them for a good return in gold. Having learned their way to distant Spanish ports, Eng- Drake's hatred of Spain

lish sea-rovers began to prey upon Spanish commerce on a much larger scale. The boldest of these captains was Francis Drake, the story of whose adventures is more exciting than any "pirate book" ever written. He hated Spain very much as Hannibal hated Rome; and this hatred, quite as truly as his zeal for England and his love of adventure, was the motive which controlled his remarkable career.

Drake and Hawkins at Vera Cruz

His first expedition to America was with Sir John Hawkins, for whom he was pilot. As this was a slave-trading venture, they went first to Africa and collected about 500 negroes. On the northern coast of South America they traded them for gold and pearls, and sailed for home. But hurricanes shattered their fleet and drove them into the Gulf of Mexico. They put into the harbor of Vera Cruz, and while their ships were undergoing repairs, the Spaniards, although they had signed a truce with Hawkins, fell treacherously upon them, captured their treasure, and destroyed all but two of their ships. Indeed, the English barely escaped with their lives.

A DASH FOR LIBERTY. AN INCIDENT OF THE EARLY SLAVE-TRADE

Drake's purpose

206. **Drake Makes an Expedition to Panama.**—After this treachery, Drake gave up slave-dealing and vowed vengeance on Spain. As

soon as possible after returning to England, he prepared to make a series of voyages with the purpose of capturing all the Spanish treasure-ships he could find, and attacking all the Spanish settlements he could reach.

Drake at Panama

In 1572, with only two small vessels manned by a very young crew, he sailed for Panama, intending to capture the treasure-house of the Spanish colonies, located on the northern shore of the isthmus. With great daring and bravery he made an attack, but his force was too small and he did not succeed. He sent back this message, however, by a Spaniard: "Tell your governor to hold his eyes open. For before I depart, if God lend me life and leave, I mean to reap some of your harvest which you get out of the earth and send into Spain to trouble all the earth."

Drake captures much Spanish treasure

Before leaving that part of the coast, he made some brilliant captures and then suddenly disappeared. Where he had gone was a mystery to the Spaniards. But he had changed his plan. Knowing that King Philip's great "Plate Fleet" would arrive from Spain in a few months to receive the gold and treasure gathered at Panama, he determined to waylay the caravans on their way across the isthmus to the ships. During months of weary waiting, Drake and his men suffered untold hardships. But from their safe retreat, they swept the seas of passing cargoes, swooped down on unsuspecting fleets, and robbed distant store-houses of the treasure intended for the King.

He attacks a mule train

When at last the King's ships arrived, Drake's first attempt at capture was foiled. But later, after the Spaniards thought all danger was over, he made a sudden assault on one of the mule trains and got off with a great store of treasure. With the greatest difficulty it was conveyed

to the ships, and then, laden with their precious booty and rejoicing at their good fortune, they set off for home.

207. Drake Sees the Pacific.—In his passage across the isthmus, while on his way to attack the caravans, Drake was taken by the natives to the top of a hill where, from under the spreading branches of a gigantic tree, he gazed over the vast waters of the Pacific. He was the first Englishman to behold this ocean. In awe he sank upon his knees, praying God to give him life and leave to sail upon those seas.

DRAKE SEES THE PACIFIC

208. Drake's Voyage Around the World.—It was several years before Drake could again make a voyage to the New World. Spain and England were at peace, and the Queen would not allow him to sail. In 1577, however, conditions had changed; and by the help of wealthy friends he obtained command of five ships and set out with the Queen's consent. It was understood that he was starting for Egypt, and it was long before his men knew whither they were bound. When they found out, a serious mutiny threatened him, but his great ability as a master of men saved the day.

Drake starts on his voyage

He enters the Pacific

The fleet sailed down the coast of Africa, struck across to South America, and made for the Strait of Magellan. Storms rendered the strait almost impassable. For two

weeks the vessels were tossed about by squalls and whirlwinds amid threatening rocks, and a worse storm struck them as they entered the Pacific.

The "Golden Hind" alone

For two months they were driven helplessly hither and thither. One ship went down with all her crew. One sailed back through the strait. Two had already been lost before entering the strait, so that Drake's ship, the *Golden Hind*, was left alone. He was driven southward to Cape Horn, but was too rejoiced over his discovery of the cape to be afraid. He had found the spot where the waters of the Atlantic and the Pacific rolled together.

DRAKE IN THE PACIFIC OVERTAKING A SPANISH SHIP ON HER WAY FROM CHINA

Finally the storm died away, and fortune turned in favor of the jubilant adventurers. They roused the astonished people of Chile as they sailed north, plundering as they went. At Valparaiso they collected provisions, and farther on they refitted the ship and set up a pinnace, making ready for further exploits. They then went on, plundering shamelessly and joyfully. They had many races after treasure-ships ahead. One important capture they made off the coast of Nicaragua. This was two Chinese pilots with Spain's secret trade-charts of the Pacific, a prize worth more than many treasure-ships. Continuing his course, Drake next capt-

Drake plunders the Spaniards

ured some Spanish vessels on their way from China. On one of them he found more charts, along with silks, fine white china, and other precious things. The Spaniards were in a fever of alarm.

He steers across the Pacific

But with his splendid booty Drake was off again. In vain they hunted for him along the coast. He had vanished. Going north about as far as San Francisco, he steered straight across the Pacific, seeing no land for sixty-eight days. He made the Philippines, reached Java after a perilous voyage, then rounded the Cape of Good Hope and sailed northward. He arrived in England early in November, 1580, after a voyage of nearly three years.

DRAKE'S MEN BOARDING A SPANISH TREASURE-SHIP IN THE PACIFIC

At first he was not allowed to land, for his attacks on Spanish vessels had threatened a war between England and Spain; but later he was invited to court and treated with distinguished honor. The Queen herself dined on board his ship, and knighted him. From that time he was called Sir Francis Drake. He was the second man and the first Englishman to sail entirely around the globe.

Queen Elizabeth makes Drake a knight

Drake's achievements

His achievements, with those of other sea-captains of his class, did much to establish the British on the seas and

to weaken the power of Spain. Drake was the first Englishman who set out to reduce the strength of Philip II by striking at him in America. For he saw clearly

QUEEN ELIZABETH KNIGHTING DRAKE ON BOARD THE GOLDEN HIND, AT DEPTFORD, APRIL 4, 1581

that the Spanish King was using the enormous quantities of gold and silver from Mexico and Peru to carry on his many European wars.

The Reformation

209. Differences of Religion.—The hatred of Sir Francis Drake for Spain was in large measure shared by all Englishmen, and the bitterness of their feeling was greatly increased by differences of religion. During the Middle Ages the people all belonged to one church. The Pope, as we have seen, was its supreme head, and there was no question about his rule. But after the Crusades and the rebirth of knowledge, the minds of men were

stirred with new ideas, and in course of time there came to be much discussion and bitter disputing about some of the practices and teachings of the church. The great religious movement which followed is called the Reformation. It ended in establishing Protestantism. Those who favored the Reformation are now called Protestants.

From a painting by Baron Leys

MARTIN LUTHER

Religion a part of the national spirit

During Elizabeth's time there were many Protestants in England, France, Germany, and Holland,—in Germany the followers of Martin Luther, and in France and the Netherlands the followers of John Calvin,—and in all these countries there was political unrest. As the church had been very closely united with the state, the division in the church caused division also in the nation. Feeling ran high, and religion became a part of the national spirit. Many so-called religious wars were fought, during this

period, not directly on questions of religion, but to determine whether the Protestant or the Catholic party should have control in the state.

Wars of religion

The same cause also made trouble and brought on wars between some of the leading countries of Europe, making more keen their strife for power. Spain was Catholic and the most threatening to the weaker nations, though they soon became her successful rivals and far outdistanced her in the race for power.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The Spaniards, the English, the French, and the Dutch were rivals in Europe and in America. 2. When Elizabeth was made queen, England was not a strong country. But during her long reign the English people constantly grew in wealth and power. 3. When trade passed from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, England found herself in the swift current of modern life. 4. There came to be a bitter hatred between the English and the Spaniards. 5. Drake's great purpose was to capture all the Spanish treasure-ships he could find and attack all the Spanish settlements he could reach. In this way he sought to weaken Spain's power in Europe. 6. The bitterness of feeling between England and Spain was greatly increased by differences of religion.

TO THE PUPIL

1. In the latter part of the 16th century what advantages did Spain seem to have over her rivals in America?

2. In what ways was England weak when Elizabeth was made queen?

3. Tell what you can about Queen Elizabeth. What do you think of her? Why was she called "Good Queen Bess"?

4. What were the signs of England's increasing wealth?

5. Can you explain why there was bitter hatred between England and Spain?

6. What was Drake's great purpose? What did he accomplish? What do you think of him?

7. What is meant by the Reformation?

Begin here next term

CHAPTER XXV

FRANCE ANOTHER RIVAL OF SPAIN

France and the wealth of the New World

210. France in the New World.—While following the conquests of Spain in the New World and the achievements of England at sea, we have lost sight for a time of France. That is because France was so much occupied in strengthening her kingdom at home that she had little interest in the new-found distant lands. Moreover, she had neither the religious zeal of the Spaniards nor the adventurous love of the sea so strong in the English. And yet she knew the advantage of discovering a short route to Asia, and she wished to share in the wealth which Spain, her rival, was gathering across the seas and pouring into the royal treasury.

French privateers and fishermen

French privateers were constantly on the lookout for Spanish treasure-ships on their way from America, and made frequent captures. French fishermen from Brittany and Normandy also continued to ply their trade on the coast of Newfoundland. They had known this region since the time of the Cabots, and had gone there in boats of their own as early as 1504. An enduring trace of their early occupation is found in the name Cape Breton, the inhabitants of Brittany (in French, Bretagne) being called Bretons. The hardy mariners of northern France also made many expeditions to the Canaries and the African coast, and in these southern waters continued to prey upon Spanish treasure-ships.

In 1534, Francis I sent out an expedition, as you remember, to explore the northwestern coast of North

America, the leader being Jacques Cartier, a Breton adventurer from St. Malo. His reports were encouraging, but a new war with Spain put an end to further pursuit in this direction. Very little more was done by France during this century, but enough had been explored to give her a claim to a part of North America when the rivalries of European nations were transferred to the New World.

France claims a part of North America

211. **France a Strong and Wealthy Kingdom.**—Let us look briefly at the position of France in Europe during the sixteenth century, the period at which we have arrived. At that time she was held to be the foremost kingdom of Christendom, the wealthiest and strongest. The great reason for this was that the country was united under one head, the King. For a long time the French kings had been strengthening their own power by lessening the power of the nobles. This they had done partly by marrying the royal princes and princesses to the heirs of the nobles; partly by taking lands from them on pretext of treason; and in other ways.

The growing power of the French kings

They had also humbled the cities. As long as the cities were small, the kings had helped them in every way, so that they might weaken the landed nobility. But now that the strength of the nobles was gone, the aid of the cities was no longer needed. The people as a whole were filled with a spirit of obedience to the King, and this made the nation united and strong. Moreover, the army and navy were excellent, and France was well able to defend herself.

A united and strong nation

212. **Francis I and His Dangerous Rival.**—The reign of Francis I began in 1515, when the King was only twenty

Francis attacks his rival in Italy

years old. It was largely occupied with wars against Charles V, who was not only King of Spain, but was also ruler of the Netherlands, Naples, Sicily, Austria, the New World, and was made Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. Francis first attacked his dangerous rival in Italy, where they both claimed the right to the same territory, and by a brilliant victory made good his claim to Milan. After this battle he received knighthood from the renowned Chevalier Bayard, who is known to history as "the knight without fear and without reproach."

FRANCIS I

Chevalier Bayard a wonderful man

Bayard was a wonderful man. When barely twenty he had been made a knight for his bravery in battle. Of the many stories told of his chivalry, one is about a contest between thirteen French and thirteen German knights, in which he won the day. On another occasion it is said that he held a bridge single-handed against two hundred Spaniards. Twice, when captured, he was set free without ransom. In fact all men, whether friends or foes, admired him for his splendid courage and gallantry. It is not strange, therefore, that Francis would allow no one else to knight him.

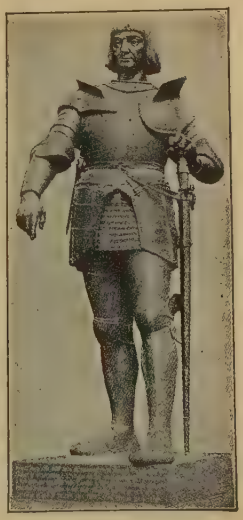
Bayard the savior of his country

But the deed which more than any other gives Bayard a place as a national hero was his six weeks' defence of an old French fortress with one thousand men against

thirty-five thousand. He heartened his men by his own splendid bravery, and by a clever trick finally drove the Spaniards away. He thus gave Francis time to collect an army, and so saved France. Parliament thanked him as the savior of his country. The King made him a knight of his own order, and gave him command of one hundred men in his own name—an honor usually reserved for royalty.

Bayard's death a serious loss for France

In his next war against Charles in Italy, Francis was taken prisoner and held for about a year in Madrid. In one of the battles of this war, Bayard lost his life. Having received a mortal wound, he sat with his back against a tree facing the enemy. The Duke of Bourbon, who had deserted his King and gone over to Charles, came up to the dying Bayard and expressed his sympathy. "Weep not for me," said the chevalier, "but for thyself. I die in performing my duty; thou art betraying thine." His death was a grievous loss to his King and to his country.



CHEVALIER BAYARD

213. Civil Wars of Religion in France.—The wars went on for many years. When at last in 1544 they were brought to an end, out of years of bloodshed and hardship for the nation nothing had been gained for France. Later there were serious troubles in France itself between the French Protestants, or Huguenots, and the Catholics. Finally these

The outcome of years of bloodshed

Serious troubles

troubles developed into civil wars of religion, and out of these grew an attempt to plant a colony in Florida.

The first colony

214. The Huguenots in Florida.—Admiral Coligny, a great French nobleman, was the Huguenot leader. Desiring to find a refuge for his people in America, he sent out a small colony in 1562, which settled at Port Royal, South Carolina. But the settlers, not being the kind of men to meet the demands of a rough backwoods life, soon tired and sailed back to France. Two years later Coligny sent out another colony, which settled on the St. John's River, many miles south of the first colony. These men also were unfit for their task, and were soon in need of food. They were saved from starving only by the coming of new colonists with fresh supplies.

The second colony

OLD SPANISH GATE, ST. AUGUSTINE

The Spanish soldiers massacre the French

But scarcity of food proved not to be their greatest danger. The Spanish King, Philip II, was so angry with the French for planting colonies on what he was pleased to call Spanish soil that he sent a body of soldiers to destroy them. Having built a fort, they attacked the French settlement and brutally put to death at least 700 men, women, and children. Only a few, perhaps a half-dozen, escaped, and after many dangers got back to France. The Spanish fort was the beginning of St. Augustine, which is now the oldest town in the eastern part of the United States.

On account of religious strife at home, France did not openly resent this outrage by Spain. But a French leader, De Gourges, fitted out at his own expense an expedition for the purpose of avenging this massacre. Sailing to Florida, he captured two Spanish forts and put to death nearly all the Spanish soldiers. As his force was not strong enough to attack St. Augustine, he returned to France the following year, leaving the Spaniards in control in Florida. It was nearly three-quarters of a century before the French tried again to plant a colony in North America, and then at a point far to the north of Florida.

A French leader avenges the massacre.

St. Augustine

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. France claimed that part of North America which Cartier had explored. 2. At that time France was held to be the wealthiest and strongest country in Europe. 3. By reason o the many wars between Francis I and his dangerous rival, Charles V, for a long time the French made no attempt to plant colonies in America. 4. When, at last, a body of Huguenot settlers made their homes in Florida, they were nearly all massacred by Spanish soldiers.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What part of North America did France claim, and why?

2. Do you see how it was that France had become the foremost kingdom in Europe?

3. Why did the French King, Francis I, pay so little attention to America?

4. What can you tell about Chevalier Bayard, and what do you admire in him?

5. Explain why the Huguenots tried to plant a settlement in Florida. What became of these settlers?

6. What was St. Augustine?

CHAPTER XXVI

THE KING OF SPAIN DEFIED BY HIS DUTCH SUBJECTS

215. The Dutch People.—Another people whom Spain was striving to conquer at this time was the Dutch. Before following this stubborn little nation in their struggle for liberty, let us get a glimpse of their interesting country.

Little Holland

It lies about the mouths of the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt Rivers, and is composed mainly of the silt which these rivers deposit as they near the sea. It is low and marshy, much of it below sea-level, and its flat surface is broken by lakes and swamps and inlets of the sea. Great tempests sweep over it, and mists and fogs envelop it much of the time. Such is little Holland and northern Belgium, the land of the Dutch people. A seemingly useless spot, the Dutch have bravely and patiently rescued it from the sea by a long fight, and have made of it thriving towns, green pastures, waving wheat-fields, fruitful orchards, and blossoming gardens.

The dikes and the ocean

To do all this called for a great deal of time and money and patience, for the ocean with its ceaseless flow had always to be kept out. They had to build strong dikes; that is, solid walls with gates that could be opened when necessary. Even then they had to be ever on the watch, as they must be to-day; for a tiny leak, if not repaired, might bring disaster.

The work of the windmills

But keeping out the rush of the sea is only a part of the battle, for the swamps and lakes have to be drained of

useless water. Countless windmills, since the time of the Crusades, have performed this task. They stretch in picturesque rows along the dikes, and pump the water from the fields into canals which form a net-work all over the land. Even scattered farms in the country are connected with each other and with cities by these water-ways, which also connect them with the sea.

IN THE WINDMILL COUNTRY, HOLLAND

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THE REPRODUCTION OF HUDSON'S "HALF MOON," AT THE TIME OF THE HUDSON-FULTON CELEBRATION IN NEW YORK WATERS, 1909

Dutch mariners and explorers

Being so close to the sea, many of the Dutch earned their living in their boats. Some were fishermen, some traders, and some sturdy mariners and explorers. Perhaps they were more prudent than adventurous. At all events they had

no Columbus nor Drake. But Hudson River and Bay, Bering Strait, Block Island, and perhaps Rhode Island, and other places, named after or by Dutch explorers, bear evidence that they had a part, though a small one, in the discoveries of the New World.

Dutch fishermen and trade

Their mariners were much more active in fisheries and trade. The fisheries became extensive, and after Portugal had discovered the water route to the Indies, Dutch towns for a time carried on a thriving trade by sea with Lisbon. Dutch merchant-men steadily and rapidly increased in number and became the chief carriers of the northern seas. The coasts of their provinces thronged with traffic, and thus was begun their great future as a trading nation.

Dutch courage and love of freedom

Whether struggling against the sea or building up a world commerce, this sturdy race showed a stubborn courage, a patient industry, and a never-failing perseverance. These same qualities controlled their public life. They had a love of freedom which expressed itself in a free and independent government. They made their own laws and voted their own taxes, and these liberties were very dear to them.

THE EMPEROR, CHARLES V

Charles V and the Netherlands

216. Philip II and the Netherlands.—When Philip II ascended the throne of Spain, in 1556, he received the Netherlands, including the present Holland to the north and Belgium to the south, as a part of his kingdom from his father, Charles V. Charles had not been mindful of

the rights of the people, and was very cruel to the Protestants, who lived mostly in the north. But in spite of his faults he won men to himself, for he was really a great man and ruler. Philip, however, was a narrow and haughty man with his human feeling withered by religious bigotry, and was much disliked and feared by the Dutch.

Philip oppresses the Netherlanders

Their fears were not groundless. For when he became their King he at once began to take away their liberties. He appointed Spanish officials to represent him, kept a body of Spanish troops in the country, and increased the taxes. Worse than all else, in his determination to stamp out heresy he added religious persecution. This he did through the Inquisition, which was a court to examine and punish heretics, as those were called who were not Catholics.

KING PHILIP II

217. Bitter Opposition to Philip.—Thus he aroused bitter opposition. Certain noblemen formed a league to protect themselves against these measures. Two hundred or more of their number presented a "request" to Margaret, Philip's sister, who was acting as regent for him. They marched four abreast to the palace and asked that she suspend the punishment of men on account of their religion until she could send an envoy to the King and learn his pleasure. As these men with serious faces filed by, Margaret's eyes filled with tears, for she felt sure that the outcome would be a deadly struggle between these stubborn men and the equally stubborn King.

The noblemen's "request"

The "Beggars"

One of the royal councillors, on seeing Margaret's distress, said to her, "Is it possible that your Highness can be afraid of these beggars!" When this remark came to the ears of the Dutch patriots, they adopted the name "Beggars" for themselves and made it a watchword of liberty. Not only the noblemen but their wives and children now clothed themselves in the beggar's dress of coarse gray. The nobles hung upon their caps small wooden cups like those which beggars used, and fastened a special medal of gold or silver to chains on their breasts. On one side it was engraved with Philip's image, on the other with a beggar's wallet and the motto, "Faithful to the King, even to bearing the beggar's bag." Cheaper medals of copper and lead were in great demand. Sailors on the sea and working-men on the land gloried in wearing them and in calling themselves "Beggars."

DUKE OF ALVA

A wave of patriotism

A wave of patriotism swept over the whole country. The stubborn spirit of a freedom-loving people was on fire with indignation.

Thousands put to death

218. Pitiless Cruelty of the Duke of Alva.—As a result of the continued excitement, a Protestant riot broke out in the cities. The mobs sacked churches and cathedrals, destroyed images, and carried off church treasures. To restore order and compel submission, Philip sent to the Netherlands (1567) the Duke of Alva, a Spanish general. Alva was a pitiless soldier and his men equalled him in cruelty. Through the Inquisition he executed men in

droves. With little or no pretext, he put thousands to death. Some were beheaded, some were hanged, and others burned at the stake. During Alva's stay in the country, it is said that more than 18,000 people were executed by his orders. Nor did he stop with the punishment of the Dutch Protestants in the north. He was cruel as well to the southern Netherlanders who remained Catholic.

William the Silent a great leader

219. William, Prince of Orange, and the Dutch Revolt.—A great revolt followed these outrages, a bitter struggle which lasted over forty years. The Dutch patriots, fighting for their political rights and for religious freedom, were led by William, Prince of Orange, sometimes called "William the Silent." He was a rich and powerful nobleman and a very brave and patriotic man. His followers looked up to him with the greatest respect and confidence. Under his strong leadership they resisted with stubborn heroism the terrible might of the Spaniards. It was also through his leadership that the northern Netherlands finally became a free and united nation; though the southern provinces fell away and went back under Spanish rule rather than disobey the Roman Catholic Church. He has been called the Dutch Washington.

The Spaniards surround the city

220. The Siege of Leyden.—The crisis of the struggle came in 1574 with the siege of Leyden. This city was one of the most beautiful in the land, showing every sign of thrift and prosperity. The first siege of the Spaniards was short, but when the city was relieved it foolishly neglected to lay in supplies. As a result, when the Spaniards again surrounded it, about two months later (June),

the city was without surplus provisions and almost without troops for its defence.

"Better a drowned land than a lost land"

The only way in which the Dutch could hope to overpower the Spaniards was by their fleet. But Leyden was not on the sea. Therefore the sea must be brought to Leyden at any cost. William had long been convinced that the only way to save the city was to break the dikes. This would greatly damage villages, fields, and growing crops. Yet, notwithstanding the outlook, the patriots fearlessly cried out, "Better a drowned land than a lost land."

WILLIAM, PRINCE OF ORANGE

In August, therefore, the dikes which kept out the ocean were cut, and the water rose over the land.

The citizens dying of hunger and pestilence

The fleet advanced with the tide, captured the dikes near the city, and broke through them. Then unfavorable winds came, held back the water, and the fleet lay stranded in the shallows. The citizens of Leyden, meanwhile, were dying of hunger and pestilence. Still they held out against the besieging Spaniards in desperate hope of relief.

The fleet advances to the rescue

From his head-quarters not far from Leyden, William encouraged them. "As long as there is a living man left in the country," he said, "we will contend for our liberty and our religion." At last, to the great joy of the starving citizens, a severe storm arose. The waters rushed in, floating the ships, and they came sailing onward to the rescue of the brave men and women in the

city. One Spanish garrison fled in terror, many drowning as the waves swept on. But there was still a formidable Spanish redoubt facing the Dutch fleet.

The Spaniards retreat

That night, in the storm and darkness, a great crash was heard. The city wall had caved in, and the whole place was at the mercy of the Spanish soldiers. They, however, already terror-stricken by the advance of the ocean, were all the more alarmed by the crash and silently fled in the darkness. In the morning, when the fleet was preparing for a last desperate assault, they discovered that the fort was deserted. Without opposition, the welcome vessels sailed into the city amid the wild joy of the survivors.

A heroic man

221. Death of William, Prince of Orange.—This did not end the struggle. William continued to champion the cause of the patriots. In 1580, Philip II declared him a traitor and an outlaw and put a heavy price on his head. Five attempts were made after this to murder him. The sixth was successful. He was shot in 1584 by a fanatic, who thought he was doing a Christian duty. The death of this heroic man, whose whole life was one of devotion to his people, was a serious loss to them; but the struggle for their rights as freemen did not stop, as we shall see in the following chapter.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. The Dutch were a sturdy race with stubborn courage, never-failing perseverance, and a deep love of freedom. 2. When Philip II became the King of the Netherlanders he at once began to take away their liberties. 3. The Dutch patriots, fighting for their political rights and for religious freedom, were led by William, Prince of

Orange. 4. The crisis of the struggle came in 1574 with the siege of Leyden, the result of which was the defeat of the Spaniards. 5. The heroic Prince of Orange was at last shot by a fanatic (1584).

TO THE PUPIL

1. Can you explain how the Dutch people rescued from the sea the land on which they lived?

2. What kind of people were the Dutch, and how did most of them earn their living?

3. What kind of king was Philip II, and how did he oppress the people of the Netherlands?

4. Who were the "Beggars"?

5. What do you think of the Duke of Alva?

6. What kind of leader was William the Silent? How do you like him?

7. Imagine yourself in Leyden during the siege and tell what happened.

8. Are you using your map in the preparation of every lesson?

CHAPTER XXVII

ENGLISHMEN JOIN IN THE FIGHT AGAINST SPAIN

222. **Elizabeth Sends Aid to the Netherlands.**—Elizabeth had long refused to send aid to the struggling Netherlands. But at last she saw clearly that Philip II, with his powerful army and navy, might overwhelm them if they were left to fight their battles single-handed. She knew also that with the Netherlands at his feet Philip would next try to crush England. In 1585, therefore, she sent to their aid a small army under the command of the Earl of Leicester.

A true knight of the age

223. **Sir Philip Sidney.**—The Dutch gained little from this venture of Elizabeth's, but England lost one of her noblest men. This was Sir Philip Sidney, a true knight

of the age. He was a nephew of Leicester and a great favorite of the Queen. To him had been given the position of governor in Flushing, a Dutch town held as a pledge by Elizabeth. He fell in a hopeless engagement in which he had taken part as a volunteer. A touching incident of this encounter has come down to us. As Sidney was returning from his last charge he received a fatal wound. Some one brought him a cup of water, but, observing a dying soldier near by, he insisted upon its being given to him, saying, "Thy need is greater than mine."

SIR PHILIP SIDNEY

Sidney himself died soon after. Though only thirty-two, he had made a place among the leading men of his day. He was a noted scholar, a brave soldier, and an accomplished gentleman. Noble and generous, with a rare charm of manner, he was a favorite not only in the court but in the camp. He has been called the idol of his time. His gracious act on the field of battle gives but a glimpse of his unselfish and chivalrous spirit, which found its greatest pleasure in serving others.

The idol of his time

224. The Invincible Armada and Sir Francis Drake. —Elizabeth continued to give a wavering support to Holland, while Philip of Spain meantime secretly hastened preparations for a long-planned invasion of England. He believed the time had come for seizing the English throne,* and that with England added to his empire he

Philip's purposes

* Philip II, as husband of Mary, who was Queen of England (1553–8), had color of legal claim which he thought the English Catholics might recognize.

would soon put an end to the stubborn resistance of Holland. His ambition knew no bounds. The great fleet which he was building he called the "Invincible Armada," for he believed nothing afloat would be able to conquer it.

Drake "singes the King's beard"

Notwithstanding his secrecy, however, Elizabeth and her advisers knew quite well what was going on. She therefore sent Sir Francis Drake—who, you remember, had been made her Majesty's admiral at sea—with a fleet of twenty-three vessels and orders to sail against Spain. In the summer of 1587 he entered the port of Cadiz at a time when the harbor was full of transports and storeships in preparation for the coming attack upon England. At sight of Drake the Spaniards were paralyzed with fear, and made little opposition while he plundered, burned, and sank some forty or fifty of their vessels and destroyed immense quantities of provisions. After this "singeing the King's beard," as he called it, Drake sailed along the coast, leaving terror and destruction in his wake. By reason of his attack the Spanish Armada was prevented from sailing for England until the following year.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

225. **Philip's Plan.**—Philip's plan was clearly mapped out. The fleet was to sail from Lisbon to the English Channel. When off Calais, the Duke of Parma, who

was then at Dunkirk, on the Flemish coast, was to come with a large army on transports to meet it. The Armada was to escort Parma across the Channel, then keep off the English and Dutch fleets, while Parma and his army should attack London. Parma alone bitterly opposed this plan. He knew that it would be next to impossible to get his men across the Channel, since they would have to face not only unfavorable weather, but the ships of the Dutch and the English.

226. England Prepares for the Armada.—At the approach of the Armada the excitement in England was intense. The royal fleet was not large, but scores of privateers joined it. Men and cities furnished ships; farmers and fishermen from all over the kingdom hastened to the front as volunteers. In fact, all ranks and classes joined, for love of country, in a united effort to ward off the invader. Seamen were glad of a chance to fight Spain. A great wave of national feeling made men forget religious differences, and Catholic and Protestant stood side by side ready to fight to the death for England. The commander of the English fleet was himself a Catholic.

All Englishmen unite

ENGLISH MAN-OF-WAR ABOUT 1588

The brave spirit of Queen Elizabeth

In the hour of England's need, Queen Elizabeth showed her real greatness. Her self-confidence and unflinching courage gave confidence and courage to the people. She went out to Tilbury, where the raw recruits were gathering, and addressed the camp. "I have placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my subjects," she said to them, "and therefore I am come amongst you, as you see, resolved, in the midst and heat of battle, to live or die amongst you all. I know that I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a King, and of a King of England, too." Her words and spirit aroused great enthusiasm.

The Armada arrives

227. **The Defeat of the Armada.**—Lord Howard of Effingham commanded in name, but Drake was the real admiral; and the other chief officers included such famous sea-captains as Norris, Frobisher, and Hawkins. Their hasty preparations having been made, the English waited with eagerness the approach of the great fleet. It was late in arriving, but finally, when least expected, on the afternoon of Friday, July 19, 1588, it was sighted off the English coast.

FROBISHER

The English fleet sails

It is said that when the news reached Plymouth, Drake was playing bowls with the chief officers of the fleet. He realized the great danger, but gave no sign of alarm. Indeed he finished his game. By the next morning, however, the ships, in the face of a strong wind, had cleared the harbor and were beating along the coast to meet the foe.

The two fleets

The Armada had 134 ships. They were large and fine and very completely equipped, but they moved clumsily and slowly. The English ships were more numerous than the Spanish. They were also much lighter and more active, and had more guns and better seamen. Moreover, their commanders were old sea-dogs whose homes were on the water. Many of them had measured swords with Spaniards upon the sea. For eight days a running fight was kept up as the Armada sailed along the Channel toward Calais.

HAWKINS

The clumsy galleons and the light pinnaces

The English, shunning fights at close quarters, hung around the great fleet, pouring shot into the Spanish hulls and racing away again. The Spanish galleons, "gilded, towered, floating castles with their gaudy standards and their martial music," were too clumsy to give chase. They formed a beautiful crescent seven miles across; but they were no match in action for the light pinnaces of the English.

Drake a terror to the Spaniards

Many hot encounters took place. One of the finest flag-ships surrendered to Drake without a protest when it fell in his way. His very name was a terror to the Spaniards. On the second Saturday of the long fight the Armada anchored off Calais and waited for Parma, who had been blockaded by the Dutch fleet at Dunkirk, only six leagues away.

The English fire-ships

To prevent the two forces from uniting, the English sent fire-ships among the Spanish galleons. Just after midnight eight flaming vessels bore down on the terrified

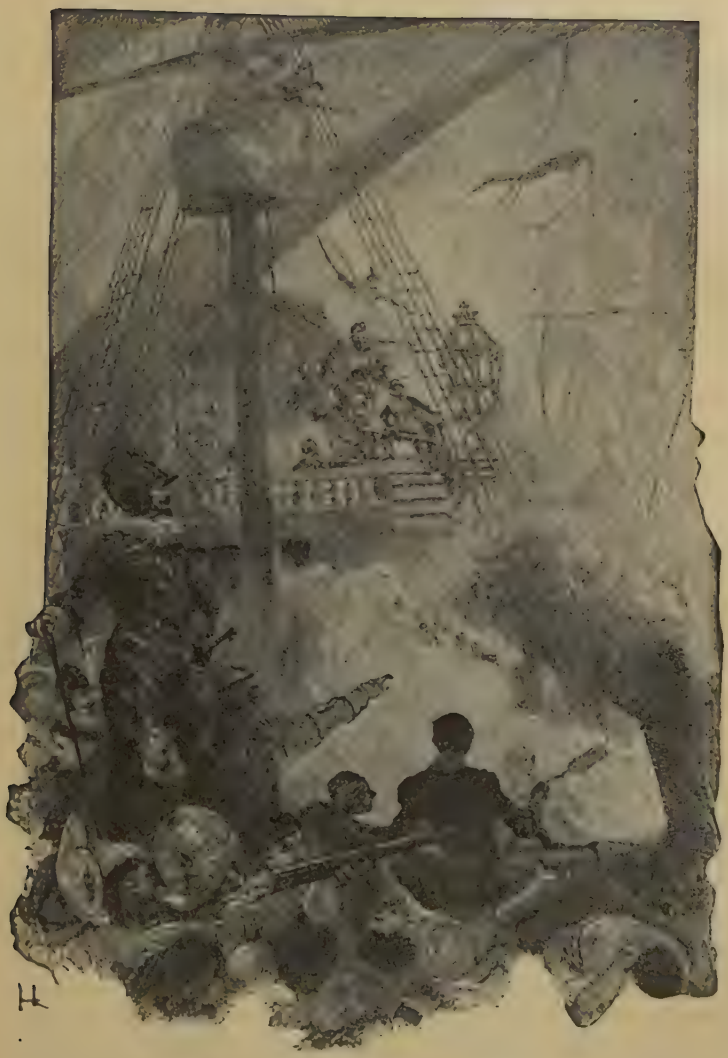
Spaniards. The whole fleet fell into confusion, cutting their cables and getting hopelessly entangled with each other. The next morning the scattered vessels were

ONE OF THE FINEST FLAG-SHIPS SURRENDERED TO DRAKE WITHOUT A PROTEST WHEN IT FELL IN HIS WAY

being driven headlong by a furious wind. Forty were separated from the rest, and on these the English bore down. In as hot a battle as ever was fought, all but sixteen Spanish ships were destroyed.

The Spaniards in great danger

It seemed that the wind would complete the victory, for it came out of the north-west and headed the Armada straight on to the shoals of Flanders. The English waited in grim delight to see their foes carried to their doom. At last, when the Spaniards, overwhelmed with fear, were on their knees praying for deliverance, a sudden shift of wind came and carried them safely off again and out to sea.



DECK SCENE ON ONE OF THE SHIPS OF THE ARMADA DURING THE FIGHT, SHOWING SOME OF THE SPANISH ARMOR OF THAT TIME

Panic among the Spaniards

The English did not despair, though their provisions and ammunition were practically gone. Keeping up a good face and hiding their real weakness, they gave chase for two days. The Spaniards fled before them in panic.

Storms and wrecks

228. **Results of the Great Defeat.**—At last, however, a long-expected tempest came and released the wearied English fighters. For a time at least the Spaniards could do no harm. As it turned out, the Armada was never to harm any nation again. In the succession of storms which followed, the great fleet went to its doom among rocks and crags and shoals. Some forty ships were wrecked on the Orkney Islands, the coast of Ireland, and the English coast. Fifty-three useless wrecks reached Spain. Possibly a third of the crews survived. Most of the leaders were dead or in captivity. Philip had spent 6,000,000 ducats on the fleet, and there was as much more in the treasure chests on board. All this had gone for nothing, in the face of the daring patriotism of the English seamen and the stubborn pluck of the Dutch, who had held Parma at bay.

The shattered fleet

The Netherlands saved from Philip

It is said that when Philip received the news of the disaster his countenance did not change. Turning to the defeated admiral, he calmly remarked, "I sent you to war with men but not with the winds." He could not know, nor could any one know then, how the defeat had weakened Spain. It was now impossible for Philip to conquer the United Netherlands, which finally secured their independence. Moreover, in his attempt to weaken the Dutch, he had strengthened England in two ways. In the first place, his persecution had driven from such cities as Antwerp thousands of merchants and manu-

Philip's wars in the Netherlands strengthen England

facturers who thereafter made their homes in England and built up English industries. In the second place, it had greatly reduced the Dutch carrying trade, much of which passed at once into the hands of English merchants and ship-owners.

Spain loses her naval supremacy

Philip did not know how strong his despised rival had become, nor did he know that Spain could never again attack England with any hope of success. When the little island kingdom crushed the great Armada it became certain that henceforth Spain was not to be the greatest sea power in the world. And with her naval supremacy lost, it was no longer possible for her to protect and control her vast empire. A large part of her possessions was, as we have seen, in the many Spanish-American states, where the impress of her language, her literature, her religion, and her ways of living can still be traced. These possessions, now that her power on the seas was waning, she was destined to lose.

England takes her place among the great world powers

But Spain's loss was England's gain. The outcome of the duel with the greatest sea power of the world gave England courage and self-reliance. After the defeat of the Armada she at once took a prominent place among the great world powers, and along with the growth of her navy went the growth of what was to become a mighty empire.

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. When Queen Elizabeth saw that Philip II would crush the Netherlands if they were left to fight their battles single-handed she sent them help. 2. Philip's purpose was to seize the English throne and add England to his empire. 3. All Englishmen joined

for love of country, in a united effort to ward off the Spanish invaders. 4. Queen Elizabeth's self-confidence and unflinching courage gave confidence and courage to the people. 5. The Armada met with overwhelming defeat. 6. There were three striking results of this defeat: (1) the Netherlands were saved from Philip; (2) Spain lost her naval supremacy; and (3) England took her place among the great world powers.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Why did England at last send aid to the Netherlands?
2. Who was Sir Philip Sidney, and what do you admire in him?
3. What were the purposes of Philip II?
4. What is meant by Drake's "singeing the King's beard"?
5. Tell what you can about the way in which all Englishmen united to drive off the invaders. How did Queen Elizabeth show her brave spirit?
6. How long did the battle last and what kind of battle was it?
7. What were the many results of the great defeat?

CHAPTER XXVIII

ENGLISH VOYAGES WESTWARD

Spain in the full blaze of her glory

229. England in the New World.—Until the defeat of the Armada Spain was in the full blaze of her glory. Her empire in the New World was established, the Dutch were partially subdued, Portugal was hers by conquest, and England seemed hardly beyond her grasp. As we have seen, all Europe stood in fear of her. In striking contrast to her grandeur and power was the untried strength of the English nation and the slender thread of discovery and settlement connecting England with the New World.

English explorers

Up to this time her explorers had not ventured into that part of America to which Spain laid claim. Martin

Frobisher had visited the coast far to the north, boldly searching for a north-west passage to India, and had discovered the strait which bears his name (1576). John Cabot also had voyaged along the eastern coast, as we have already noticed, and English privateers had taken part in many encounters with Spanish merchant-men on the high seas. Chief of these was Francis Drake, whose brilliant exploits on the Spanish main and elsewhere had made even Philip II uneasy. But the English had gained no permanent footing in the New World, and there was nothing, it seemed, to show that Spain's great rival for power in America had already made a start in the race. We have now to look for the beginnings which led to that struggle in America.

English privateers

230. Sir Humphrey Gilbert's Attempts to Plant a Colony.—Sir Humphrey Gilbert was the first Englishman to attempt a settlement in the New World. Unlike some of the privateersmen, he was not a lawless adventurer, but a gentleman and a scholar as well as a trained soldier, and one of the noblest men of his time. It was the great desire of his life to found in America an English colony, and having received a patent from the Queen, he set out in 1578 with eleven ships.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT

The first expedition was a total failure. Five years later, however, he made a second attempt. Sir Walter Raleigh furnished one ship, the best of the little fleet, and Gilbert managed to get four more.

Gilbert's second colony

With him went 260 men skilled in various trades—masons, miners, carpenters, and so on; for he intended to found a permanent colony. He took trinkets also in order to attract the natives into trading.

Ill-luck follows the expedition

But ill-luck followed the expedition from the very first. The ship furnished by Raleigh deserted almost at the outset. Two others were separated from the fleet during the voyage, but rejoined Gilbert at Newfoundland. In St. John's harbor were many ships of various nations, but the English were welcomed cordially. They took possession of the land in the name of the Queen of England.

Fresh troubles

Soon fresh troubles began. The colonists did not feel much interest in the venture, except for what they could get out of it for themselves. This we should expect of them, for they were mainly adventurers of a low type. Many deserted and managed to get passage home in other vessels. Others fell sick. Gilbert, leaving one ship to take home the invalids, started southward to explore the country. Then came a most discouraging loss. His best remaining ship struck on a rock and went down, taking most of the provisions and supplies. Only a few of the crew escaped.

Gilbert starts homeward

So many disasters followed that Gilbert, much against his will, had to give up his quest and start for home. He sailed in the *Squirrel*, the tinier of the two remaining ships, though his friends begged him not to do so, for she was overloaded. But he had come over in her and he would not desert his little company, he said. In a heavy storm the tiny vessel went down, and neither vessel nor crew was ever seen again. The men in the other ship said they

Gilbert's tiny vessel goes down at sea

last saw Gilbert "sitting abaft with a book in his hand, and crying to us, 'We are as near heaven by sea as by land.' But the same night suddenly the frigate's lights went out, and in that moment she was swallowed up." He has been called "the father of English colonization."

Raleigh wishes to plant a colony

231. Sir Walter Raleigh Sends an Expedition to America.—Gilbert's great desire, namely, to plant English colonies in America, was strongly held also by Raleigh, his half-brother. Raleigh made careful plans, and gained permission from the Queen to make discoveries and take possession of lands not already occupied by any Christian prince. His wish was to plant a colony in the country north of Florida, a land which England claimed because of the discoveries of John Cabot. In 1584, about the time Philip II was beginning to gather ships for the Armada, Raleigh sent two vessels to the New World to find out something about the country. His captains brought back, as products of the expedition, two Indians and some skins of wild animals, and gave such a glowing account of the land they had seen, of its beautiful trees and fertile soil, that Queen Elizabeth said it should be called Virginia, in honor of herself, the virgin Queen.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH

The new country called Virginia

The colonists cruel to the Indians

232. Raleigh's First Colony.—The next year Raleigh sent out a colony of 108 persons. His cousin, Sir Richard Grenville, was commander of the fleet, and Ralph Lane governor of the colony. They landed at Roanoke Island. Here they met with great misfortunes, in large measure

due to their harsh treatment of the Indians. The story is told that when an Indian stole a silver cup from the colonists they punished the whole tribe by burning their village. Such cruelty, of course, made the Indians hate the white men.

Indian tales

Besides bringing upon themselves the ill-will of the natives, which led to many troubles, they ran short of food, and Grenville sailed to England for more. During his absence Lane started out to explore the Roanoke River, of which he had heard wonderful tales from the Indians. This stream, they said, ran through a land rich with minerals. Its waters flowed from a fountain so near the South Sea that in time of storm the waves broke over into the fountain. Near this stream, they declared, was a town with walls of pearls. Lane and his followers, too eager in believing such tales, went in search of the fountain and the wonderful town. After great hardships and suffering they returned, having been obliged to eat their dogs to keep from starving.

A foolish expedition

Drake appears

During his absence things had gone badly at the settlement. Everybody felt discouraged and the future looked gloomy. About this time Sir Francis Drake with a fleet of twenty-three vessels anchored near Roanoke Island. He had come from the West Indies, where he had been plundering the Spanish settlements. On hearing of the condition of the colonists he offered to leave a part of his fleet with provisions. But when a heavy storm came up all the colonists decided that they wished to return to England.

The return to England

At their request he took them all aboard, and they sailed for home, little dreaming that Grenville with a full

supply of provisions would reach Roanoke in about three weeks, only to find the settlement deserted. They had found no gold, but they carried to England things

THE ARRIVAL OF THE ENGLISHMEN IN VIRGINIA. FROM A DRAWING BY JOHN WHITE, OF RALEIGH'S FIRST COLONY, 1585

that had quite as much value as gold or precious stones —tobacco, potatoes, and Indian-corn. No one then thought so, however.

Raleigh's splendid courage

233. Raleigh's Second Colony.—The wealth that lay hidden in the soil was yet unknown, and there was no enthusiasm over the new colony of Virginia. Most men would by this time have lost hope. But Raleigh showed splendid courage in not letting the failure of his first attempt to found a colony dishearten him. In 1587 he sent to Roanoke a second company under Captain John White. This colony contained 150 men, 17 women, and

The second colony sails

11 children. Raleigh himself wished to join it, but the Queen would not allow him to leave her court. He directed that the colonists, after first landing at Roanoke Island to pick up 15 men who had been left there by Grenville, should make a settlement at Chesapeake Bay.

The men, however, were not to be found; and after staying on the island a while the sailors refused to proceed to the Chesapeake, for the summer was far spent. So the colonists were obliged to remain where they were.

Captain White goes back to England

Like the earlier settlers, they were harsh in their treatment of the Indians, and began to have trouble with them. Finally provisions began to fail, and they begged Captain White to go to England for fresh supplies. Unwillingly he consented, for he did not like to leave the colonists nor to separate himself from his little granddaughter, Virginia Dare, who was the first white child born in the New World.

He returns to Roanoke

He reached home just as his countrymen were preparing to meet the attack of the Spanish Armada. As we have seen, England needed all the ships that her seamen could muster. The two small vessels, therefore, which Raleigh fitted out for the colony, had to remain at home. It was almost three years before Captain White could return to Roanoke. He sailed then not on his own vessel, but as a passenger on a merchant-ship bound for the West Indies. When he reached Roanoke the only traces he could discover of the missing colonists were some chests of books, some maps, and some fire-arms.

Croatoan

When Captain White had gone to England three years before, the colonists had agreed that if they should leave the place for any reason they would cut into the bark of

a tree the name of the place to which they were going. If they were in distress they would cut a cross above the name. Captain White found "Croatoan" cut in a tree in capital letters, but he found no cross. Croatoan is the name of an island near Roanoke. White urged the captain of the vessel to carry him there. But as the weather had become stormy the captain refused.

The lost colony

What became of the lost colony has never been surely known. Some twenty years afterward, however, a Virginia Indian told one of Captain Newport's company that after many years the medicine-men had grown jealous of the whites, and just before Newport's arrival had had them all killed except four men, two boys, and one girl, who had been adopted into an Indian tribe. A part of the tribe seems to have gone to North Carolina; and some think that the bulk of the lost colony was spared and went with them. Raleigh himself sent out five expeditions in search of his lost colony, but without success.

THE LOST COLONY

A new idea

Thus Raleigh failed in one of the greatest desires of his life, namely, to make a new England in America. The undertaking cost him what would be in our money a million dollars, and both colonies were complete failures. Yet the venture was by no means a useless one, since it called attention to a new idea, namely, that the

real value of America did not lie in its mines of silver and gold, and that the best way to secure a hold upon the new country was through permanent colonies.

234. **Two Great Contests.**—In the last two divisions of this book—"The Discovery of the Western World" and "Rival Powers in Europe and America"—we have noted two great contests. The first was between Portugal and Spain in their race to reach the Indies by a water route. The second was shared in by four European rivals—Spain, England, France, and the Netherlands—and was a struggle for power in Europe and in America. In the first contest Portuguese mariners, by sailing east, found the ocean route to the Indies, while Columbus, by sailing west, discovered the New World. In the second contest the struggle for power was extended from Europe to America by the explorers and conquerors of the newly discovered lands.

Columbus and Cabot

Columbus in four voyages reached Cuba, Hayti, and the other West India islands, the northern coast of South America, and the eastern coast of Central America. John Cabot, who sailed under the English flag in his voyage to Labrador, was the first to discover the mainland. In a second voyage he may have sailed along the coast of North America as far south as Florida. But at that time nobody knew whether the New World was an immense island like Australia, a peninsula extending in a south-easterly direction from Asia, or a distinct continent. When, however, Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean he led the way to the important discovery that South America was not a part of Asia; and when Magellan in his famous voyage sailed through

Balboa and Magellan

the Strait of Magellan he clearly proved that America was a distinct continent.

Other Spanish explorers

Balboa and Magellan, you will remember, made their discoveries in the name of Spain, and in the first half of the sixteenth century Spanish explorers were most active in the New World. Cortez made an expedition to Mexico and Pizarro to Peru; while farther to the north De Leon, Narvaez, and De Soto all landed on the western coast of Florida and marched inland, De Soto discovering the Mississippi River. France, however, was not idle; for Cartier not only explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but sailed up the St. Lawrence River as far as the site of Montreal.

Cartier

European rivals claim territory in the New World

235. Two Results of All These Explorations.—All these explorations had two interesting and important results. In the first place, through them men were learning more about the geography of the New World. In the second place, by reason of discoveries, explorations, or conquests, European rivals based their claims upon territory in the New World. Spain claimed all of North and South America, except Brazil, which Portugal claimed. England claimed North America, and France claimed the valley of the St. Lawrence.

A mighty struggle for control in the New World

These claims led to serious disagreements, which not only increased the bitterness of the rival powers toward each other in the Old World, but prolonged the mighty struggle on the part of the Spaniards, the French, and the English for control of the New World. In the course of years, as you will learn in your later study, the Dutch also joined in this struggle. It will be interesting for you to find out in your future reading which of these

four European rivals succeeded, which failed, and the reasons for success and failure.

Why we stop here

236. The End of Our Journey.—The point at length has been reached when colony planting was about to begin in that part of America which is now our country; for in less than twenty years after the defeat of the Spanish Armada the first permanent English colony was established at Jamestown, Virginia (1607). And here, on the threshold of what is commonly called American history, our journey ends.

Our long journey together

It is a long journey that we have taken together, through more than 2,000 years of history and including visits to many countries. We have been to Greece and Italy; to Germany, France, Spain, and Portugal; to Denmark and Holland and England. We have followed fearless explorers to South America and North America and even round the world. If the journey has succeeded in its purpose, this thought has come to you many times: How much lies back of American history; how many things of to-day had their beginning centuries ago and in distant lands; and how different our life would be were it not for what we have gained from the Greeks and the Romans, from the men of the Middle Ages and of more recent times.

The purpose of the journey

America owes a debt to the past

As you grow older you will feel more keenly how greatly America is indebted to the past. For as you study the history of European countries you will learn of many events of far-reaching influence which we, in our rapid journey, were forced to overlook. You will learn of many great souls besides the few this book has mentioned—not alone kings and queens and statesmen and

warriors and explorers, but preachers, teachers, inventors, artists, poets. You will learn, too, that we are indebted not only to prominent leaders, but to many who find little or no place in histories—to hard-working peasants, to craftsmen leading industrious lives, to unselfish mothers everywhere whose very names are forgotten. For many of the gentler influences which make life wholesome and uplifting can be traced not to those whose greatness is apparent, but to the common people.

Gentle influences which make life more wholesome

In parting company, after our long journey together, let it be with this thought in mind: Just as many things of to-day had their beginning centuries ago and in distant lands, so here in America much is being done the influence of which is widely felt and will continue to be widely felt ages hence. The little Jamestown colony has grown into a nation second to no other in the world, and its responsibility is correspondingly great. America, which has received so many gifts from Europe, must now do her best for the world.

America can help the world

But a nation is made up of individuals, and its strength, moral and intellectual, depends upon their strength. What the individuals are, what you and I and others are, that will the nation be. Few of us can do great deeds that will attract world-wide attention, but if we do what we think is right, unselfishly serving those about us, we are as truly patriots as Leonidas, or the Chevalier Bayard, or "Good Queen Bess." We are helping America to help the world. In the long run, it is the little deeds of daily life that leave the deepest impression and most truly enrich the lives of men and women.

Every one can be a patriot

THINGS TO REMEMBER

1. Up to the time when England defeated the Armada her explorers had not ventured into that part of America to which Spain laid claim. 2. The great desire of Sir Humphrey Gilbert was to found in America an English colony; but he failed. 3. Sir Walter Raleigh wished to make a new England in America. 4. Although both his colonies were complete failures, he called attention to a new idea, namely, that the best way to secure a hold upon a new country was through permanent colonies. 5. There were two great contests: the first was between Portugal and Spain in their race to reach the Indies by a water route; and the second was a struggle on the part of Spain, England, France, and the Netherlands for power in Europe and in America.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What had English explorers done in America up to the time when the Armada was defeated?

2. What did Sir Humphrey Gilbert try to do, and with what result?

3. What did Raleigh try to do?

4. Tell all you can about his first colony; about his second colony. What became of his second colony?

5. What was Raleigh's new idea?

6. What were the two great contests in Europe?

7. Tell in a few words what each of the following men accomplished: Da Gama, Columbus, Cabot, Balboa, Magellan, Cortez, Pizarro, De Soto, and Cartier.

8. What countries have we visited in our long journey together? Point them out on the map. During the journey, what thought has come to you many times?

9. What do you mean by saying that America owes a debt to the past? How can she help the world?

10. How can every American boy or girl be a patriot?

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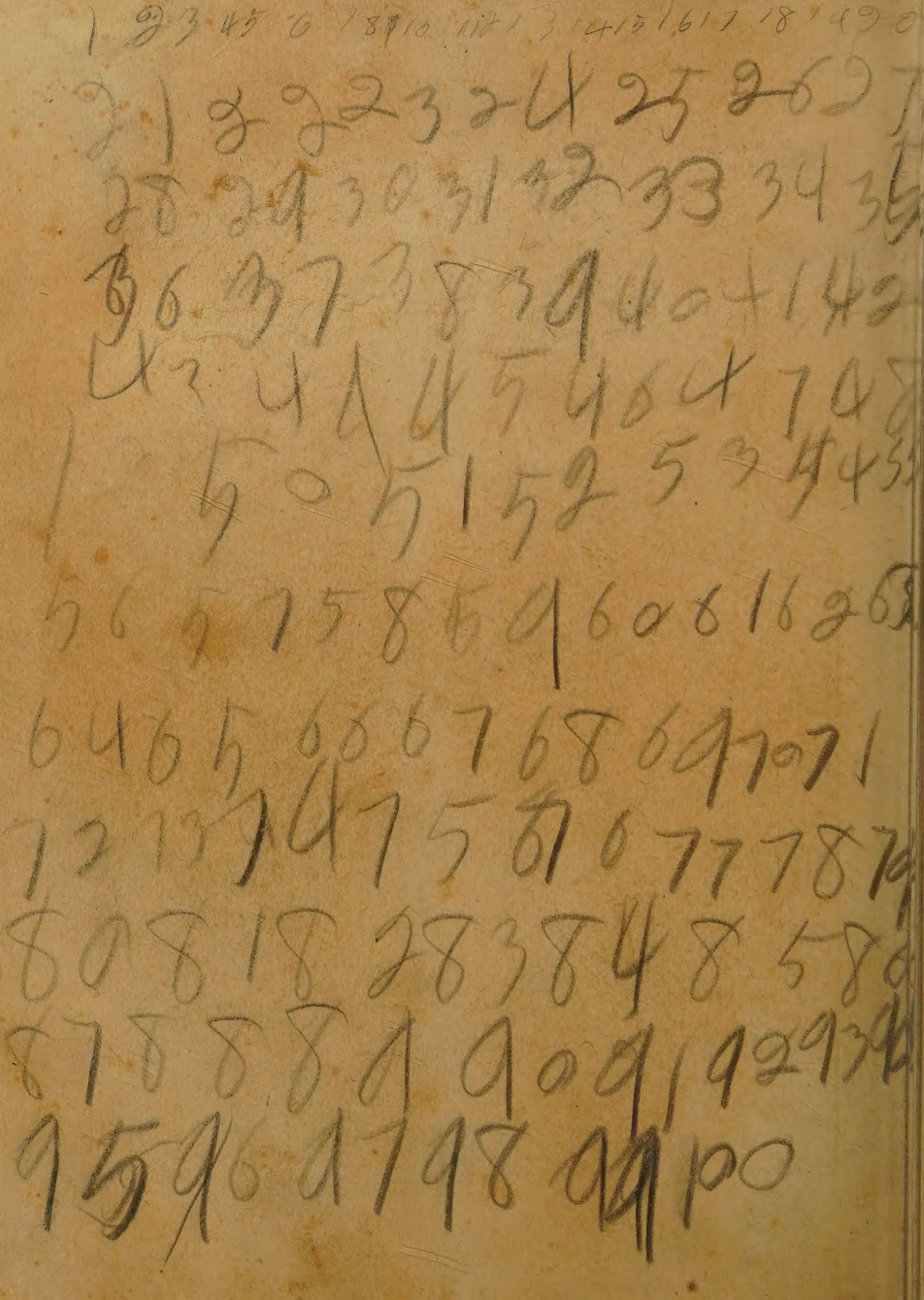
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